DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 336 735 CS 010 723

AUTHOR Rasinski, Timothy V., Ed.; And Others
TITLE Reading Is Knowledge: Thirteenth Yearbook of the College Reading Association, 1991.
INSTITUTION College Reading Association.
PUB DATE 91
NOTE 181p.; For volume 12, see ED 324 639.
PUB TYPE Collected Works - General (020)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC08 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Elementary Secondary Education; Higher Education; *Inservice Teacher Education; *Literacy; Parent Participation; *Preservice Teacher Education; *Reading Attitudes; Reading Centers; *Reading Instruction; Reading Programs; *Reading Strategies; Student Evaluation; Whole Language Approach
IDENTIFIERS Family Literacy; Reading Theories

ABSTRACT

This 1991 yearbook contains five sections: (1) Knowing about College and Adult Literacy; (2) Knowing about Home and Community Literacy; (3) Knowing about Literacy Instruction; (4) Knowing about Teacher Education in Literacy; (5) and Knowing about Teacher Education in the Content Areas. The following articles are included: "Program Evaluation: The Politics of Developmental Reading" (Donna L. Mealey); "Do College Students Who Plan before Writing Score Better on Essay Exams?" (M. K. Gills and Mary W. Olson); "College Students' Reading Assessment: Are We Surveying or Diagnosing?" (Cindy Gillespie); "Activating Implicit Theories of Reading: A Metacognitive Approach" (M. Cecil Smith); "Language Experience in a Family Literacy Project" (Elinor P. Ross); "Home Literacy Practices of Parents Whose Children Are Enrolled in a Whole Language Kindergarten" (Timothy V. Rasinski and others); "Parental Involvement through Workshops" (Nancy B. Masztal); "Case-Based Instruction and Learning: An Interdisciplinary Project" (Marino C. Alvarez and others); "Reading Perceptions of Urban Second Graders" (Elizabeth G. Sturtevant and others); "Join the Club! A New Approach to the Traditional Reading Clinic" (Rebecca F. Carwile and Karen L. Parker); "Second Grade Urban Students' Attitudes toward Reading" (Wayne M. Linek and others); "Video-Based CASE Analysis to Enhance Teacher Preparation" (Victoria J. Risko and others); "A Descriptive Study of the Reflective Statements of Preservice Teachers" (Barbara J. Walker); "Do As I Say, Not As I Do--Teacher Education" (Linda A. Packman); "Developing a Meaningful Early Field Experience for Reading Methods Courses" (William Earl Smith); "Perceptions of Preservice and Inservice Teachers Regarding Test-Taking Procedures and Test-Wiseness Programs" (Jerry L. Johns and Susan J. Davis); "Whole Language Collaboration Project: Three Case Studies to Represent Change" (Grace M. Shepperson and Robert J. Nistler); "Whole Language and Changing Language Arts Instruction: A National Survey" (Patricia K. Smith and others); "Theoretical Orientation of British Infant School Teachers" (Janet A. Miller); "A Model for Teaching Content Area Reading Strategies to Preservice Teachers" (Victoria G. Ridgeway and others); "Attitudes toward Teaching Reading in the Content Areas: A Correlational Study" (Cindy Gillespie and Nancy Clements); "Exchanging Places: College to High School Classroom" (Judy S. Richardson); and "Making Links: Reading across the Curriculum Workshops for Content Area Faculty" (Anne R. Friedman). (RS)

ED336735
CS 010 733

READING IS KNOWLEDGE

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

The Yearbook of the
College Reading Association
1991

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
J. Rasinski
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."
BEST COPY AVAILABLE
2

READING IS KNOWLEDGE

Thirteenth Yearbook
of
The College Reading Association

TIMOTHY V. RASINSKI
Kent State University

NANCY D. PADAK
Kent State University

JOHN LOGAN
Wheeling, IL Schools

EDITORIAL ASSISTANT
BETH DAWSON
Kent State University

Published by the College Reading Association
1991

© 1991 by the College Reading Association

Officers, Board of Directors, and Division Chairpersons of the College Reading Association

Executive Officers

President	Lonnie McIntyre	University of Tennessee—Chattanooga
President-Elect	Norman Stahl	Northern Illinois University
Past President	June Ewing	Georgia Southern University
Executive Secretary	Betty S. Heathington	University of Tennessee
Treasurer	Robert B. Cooter, Jr.	Brigham Young University

Board of Directors

Estill Alexander	University of Tennessee
Marino Alvarez	Tennessee State University
Estelle Brown	Glassboro State College
Margaret Cagney	Glassboro State College
Lance Gentile	University of Montana
Bill Henk	The Pennsylvania State University—Harrisburg
Jerry Johns	Northern Illinois University
Patricia Koskinen	University of Maryland
Katherine Wiesendanger	Alfred University

Division Chairpersons

Teacher Education	Janet Miller	Northern Kentucky University
College Reading	Michelle Simpson	University of Georgia
Clinical	Rose Ann Khoury	West Chester University
Adult Learning	Linda Thistlethwaite	Western Illinois University

Editorial Advisory Review Board
College Reading Association

Ernest Balajthy	State University of New York—Geneseo
Martha Collins	The University of Akron
Cindy Gillespie	Ball State University
Madlyn Hanes	The Pennsylvania State University—Delaware County Campus
Bonnie Higginson	Murray State University
Rhonda Johnson	University of Pittsburgh
Maurice Kaufmann	Northeastern University
James R. King	University of South Florida
Wayne Linek	John Carroll University
Donna Mealy	Louisiana State University
Janet Miller	Northern Kentucky University
Olga Nelson	Eastern Michigan University
Mary Olson	University of North Carolina
Dan Pearce	Northeastern Illinois University
Judy Richardson	Virginia Commonwealth University
Elizabeth Sakiey	Glassboro State College
Susan Strode	University of Missouri—Kansas City
Betty Sturtevant	Kent State University
Gwen Turner	University of Missouri—St. Louis
James Walker	Clarion University of Pennsylvania
Deobrah Wells	Slippery Rock University
Marge Wuthrick	Columbiana County (OH) Schools

Table of Contents

KNOWING ABOUT COLLEGE AND ADULT LITERACY

Program Evaluation: The Politics of Developmental Reading 1
Donna L. Mealey

Do College Students Who Plan Before Writing Score Better on Essay Exams? 7
M. K. Gillis and Mary W. Olson

College Students' Reading Assessment: Are We Surveying or Diagnosing? 11
Cindy Gillespie

Activating Implicit Theories of Reading: A Metacognitive Approach 19
M. Cecil Smith

KNOWING ABOUT HOME AND COMMUNITY LITERACY

Language Experience in a Family Literacy Project 29
Elinor P. Ross

Home Literacy Practices of Parents Whose Children Are Enrolled in a Whole Language Kindergarten 37
Timothy V. Rasinski, Beverly Bruneau, and Richard P. Ambrose

Parent Involvement Through Workshops 45
Nancy B. Masztal

KNOWING ABOUT LITERACY INSTRUCTION

Case-Based Instruction and Learning: An Interdisciplinary Project 53
Marino C. Alvarez, Elizabeth Binkley, Judy Bivens, Patricia Highers, Cynthia Poole, and Patricia Walker

Reading Perceptions of Urban Second Graders 63
Elizabeth G. Sturtevant, Wayne M. Linek, Nancy D. Padak, and Timothy V. Rasinski

Join the Club! A New Approach to the Traditional Reading Clinic 71
Rebecca F. Carwile and Karen L. Parker

Second Grade Urban Students' Attitudes Toward Reading 77
Wayne M. Linek, Elizabeth G. Sturtevant, Timothy V. Rasinski, and Nancy D. Padak

KNOWING ABOUT TEACHER EDUCATION IN LITERACY

Video-Based CASE Analysis to Enhance Teacher Preparation 87
Victoria J. Risko, Dale Yount, and Janet Towell

A Descriptive Study of the Reflective Statements of Preservice Teachers 97
Barbara J. Walker

Do as I Say, Not as I Do — Teacher Education 105
Linda A. Packman

Developing a Meaningful Early Field Experience for Reading Methods Courses 111
William Earl Smith

Perceptions of Preservice and Inservice Teachers Regarding Test-Taking Procedures and Test-Wiseness Programs 121
Jerry L. Johns and Susan J. Davis

Whole Language Collaboration Project: Three Case Studies to Represent Change 129
Grace M. Shepperson and Robert J. Nistler

Whole Language and Changing Language Arts Instruction: A National Survey 139
Patricia K. Smith, Steven D. Rinehart, and Karen F. Thomas

Theoretical Orientation of British Infant School Teachers 147
Janet A. Miller

KNOWING ABOUT TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE CONTENT AREAS

A Model for Teaching Content Area Reading Strategies to Preservice Teachers 153
Victoria G. Ridgeway, David Reinking, and Donna Mealey

Attitudes Toward Teaching Reading in the Content Areas: A Correlational Study 161
Cindy Gillespie and Nancy Clements

Exchanging Places: College to High School Classroom 167
Judy S. Richardson

Making Links: Reading Across the Curriculum Workshops for Content Area Faculty 177
Anne R. Friedman

KNOWING ABOUT COLLEGE AND ADULT LITERACY

Program Evaluation: The Politics of Developmental Reading

DONNA L. MEALEY
Louisiana State University

Developmental education is a political beast. Its very presence on college campuses demonstrates that thousands of students, by some estimates as many as 20 to 30 percent of entering freshmen, are not prepared for academic success (Abraham, 1988; U. S. Department of Education, 1985). That presence and lack of preparedness are political. The politics of reading in general are far-reaching (Shannon, 1991), and developmental reading is no exception. Teachers of developmental reading attempt to empower students to read, write, and learn better. That empowerment and its possible ramifications are political. Developmental programs need to be better funded. It is a cause that must be championed by their universities for programs to be successful. That championing is also political.

However, as budgets are curtailed or admissions standards rise, developmental education enrollments fall at flagship universities and rise at other schools. Developmental reading educators must become politic by thoroughly and continually evaluating program effectiveness and justifying the obvious need for the continued existence of developmental education. In light of the necessity to become politic, the following points will be addressed: (1) reasons for and the importance of program evaluation, (2) my experiences and approaches in implementing a program evaluation mechanism, and (3) suggestions for ways to examine program effectiveness.

IMPORTANCE OF PROGRAM EVALUATION

To increase and maintain the legitimacy of college reading programs, long-term program evaluation is imperative. Evaluation studies in this area, however, have varied widely in their methodological soundness, making conclusion drawing difficult. Similarly, some evaluation reviews (e.g., Roueche & Snow, 1977) lacked a systematic approach in conducting the analysis. Moreover, many of the studies date from the 1970s. The college population has changed considerably, although very differently by geographical region and type of institution (Levine, 1989). The importance of long-term evaluation is a cry often heard; but if judgments are to be made about program effectiveness from the extant research, there is little solid, current information to go on. Is program evaluation conducted? Are faculty/staff conducting evaluations but failing to submit the results for publication? Are evaluation studies submitted but not published? The truth probably lies among all three (or more) possibilities.

If programs are to operate with a "conscience," and if instructors care about their effectiveness and about individual student progress, developmental reading programs must take a strong measure of responsibility and accountability for their students who go on to take "regular" college classes. The major purpose of developmental reading programs is to help students succeed in their college careers. Regardless of the various theoretical approaches underpinning these programs, concern about at-risk student retention is a vitally important issue when examining the legitimacy of college reading. Evaluation helps justify program existence for however long such programs are needed.

Evaluation also forces programs to improve over time. Kulik, Kulik, and Schwalb (1983) reported that program effects are stronger in newer programs than institutionalized ones, challenging developmental educators to renew their commitment to and enthusiasm for their mission. Programs also need to be evaluated continually for their relevance to students' and faculty's changing needs. As developmental reading programs slowly evolve from a traditional, behavioral theoretical orientation to a more holistic, strategic learning approach that considers realistic college reading and learning demands, developmental reading educators will need to become greater risk takers than ever. It is a risk to change from one theoretical orientation to another, to train instructors accordingly, and to change or develop assessment instruments to reflect curriculum emphasis more adequately. It is especially risky to become involved in program evaluation because results are uncertain. These risks are worth taking, however, because programs must optimally serve students and universities.

Moreover, program evaluation and publication of results are effective ways to stem the tide of condemnation of college reading programs as second-class campus citizens or as bastard children of reading education (Mealey, Frazier, & Duchein, 1990). Cranney (1987, p. 693) has stated that a

"willingness to conduct evaluation studies and confront their findings is a sign of a maturing profession." Adequate training in reading research and methods, both quantitative and qualitative, for in- and preservice developmental educators will allow developmental educators to become reflexive about developmental reading and program effectiveness as true professionals do.

Blunt questions need to be asked: Is your program effective? Do data support your claim? What is the graduation rate of developmental students at your school? Does the developmental reading curriculum adequately prepare students for content area course demands? Do students transfer what they have learned in your program? These questions need answers on every campus with a developmental reading program.

Instructors' daily classroom and lab experiences with these students make it self-evident that students need help, that their comprehension and writing abilities are poor. However, if programs are not able to demonstrate clearly to universities and state governments that they are helping students, even in the brief time they are enrolled in these classes, then program existence may and perhaps should be jeopardized. If the existence of a reading requirement at a university is merely window dressing or a matter of political savvy, constituting an arbitrary criterion that students must meet in order for the university to look like it has some standard, then this paper's opening statement must be reiterated: Developmental reading is indeed a political beast.

EXPERIENCES OF THIS WRITER

I was hired as a developmental reading coordinator with the expectation of changing the curriculum emphasis from a skills approach to a content-based, strategic learning approach. No data base or tracking mechanism exists at my university for developmental education students although the program originated 13 years ago. Moreover, it is difficult to institute a tracking program because the budget is severely restricted, and tracking developmental reading students is not considered a priority despite the fact that the university had, until recently, a 60 percent dropout rate. Current rates may be somewhat less, simply because admission standards have been raised.

Therefore, a long-term view of developmental students at this university is foggy because only statistics on four-year graduation rates are available. The rate for developmental students was 19 percent. However, many developmental students who have not dropped out take more than four years to graduate. Five-year completion data are not available. The only available hard information on developmental reading students was from course gradebooks kept over the past six years, stored in a filing cabinet in one of the reading classrooms.

To begin to rectify the situation, I consulted university colleagues in records and registration, measurement and evaluation, admissions, and

academic affairs to devise a system for the purposes of future research and program evaluation whereby students' records will show if and how they met the reading requirement.

New program coordinators may want to develop a five-year plan. During the first year, curriculum appraisal and new curricular elements may be implemented, with a mechanism for continuing evaluation. In the second year, exemption, placement, and exit criteria may need to be assessed and changed. Years 3 through 5 (following a freshman class through five years for graduation rates) may focus on tracking student fulfillment of the reading requirement, beginning program evaluation, examining retention rates and grades, and eliciting feedback from faculty and students. As this information becomes available, curriculum and placement/exit criteria should continue to be refined in response to feedback.

SUGGESTIONS FOR PROGRAM EVALUATION

Individual programs assess effectiveness differently because each program has a unique view of what constitutes reading proficiency and capability for academic success. Just as exemption and placement tests need to reflect accurately the curriculum of the program (i.e., a skills-oriented test should not be used to measure effectiveness of a strategic learning program), just as examinations within the course should reflect the kind of instruction given, and just as the curriculum should reflect and embody what students will need to be able to do in content courses, so should program evaluation measures reflect the goals of the program.

Therefore, before assessing the effects of the program, goals need to be examined. What do students need in order to become prepared for college-level work? How does the developmental reading curriculum try to accomplish that end? The goals of the program that I coordinate focus on students having (1) a repertoire of reading, study, and test preparation strategies from which to select for different tasks; (2) the ability and motivation to transfer strategy use; (3) increased metacognitive capabilities; and (4) the same (or better) chance of graduating as students admitted without the need for developmental education.

Suggestions to accomplish program evaluation are numerous. Below, the basics (items 1–5) are provided for those who are starting from ground zero; then other options (items 6–11) are recommended. For items 1–5, four categories of student should be examined: (1) all students; (2) students not needing developmental reading; (3) students needing developmental reading who passed the course; and (4) students needing developmental reading who did not pass or take the course.

1. What is the predicted grade point average at the end of the first year of college? Do significant differences exist between the groups?
2. What is the dropout rate? Significant differences?

3. What is the completion rate at the four-and five-year marks? Significant differences?
4. What is the actual overall grade point average at the completion of the first, second, third, and fourth semesters? Significant differences?
5. What is the actual grade point average solely in general education requirement courses? Significant differences?
6. Administer questionnaires to faculty of introductory content area courses inquiring about their requirements for students' preparation in reading, studying, and test taking.
7. Track students in their general education requirement courses and target grades in content reading. Compare with students not needing developmental reading.
8. Interview random samples of former developmental reading students to get more in-depth information about the program after they have taken several general education requirement courses. Ask what they wish had been covered and whether they now see a need for the course that they did not see before.
9. Conduct transfer studies, where appropriate. For example, I am currently examining transfer of the strategies taught in developmental reading. This examination will be part of a continuing aspect of program evaluation whereby a sample of students is tracked while they are in developmental reading and until they drop out or graduate.
10. Administer questionnaires to faculty (after grades are in) regarding perceived quality of developmental students' work compared to that of other students in class.
11. Hennessy (1990) notes that program effectiveness can also be explored by examining students' affect and goals.
12. Conduct evaluation studies comparing programs from different institutions, such as rural vs. urban, skills based vs. strategic learning, and small programs vs. large programs.

A CALL FOR FURTHER RESEARCH IN COLLEGE READING PROGRAM EVALUATION

Nearly every article on program evaluation concludes with a call for further research and the importance of continuous program evaluation. This paper is no different. Indeed, to some readers this paper may not contain much new under the sun. However, as a member of the developmental reading community involved in teaching, administration, and research, who consciously and deliberately chose to work with the developmental reading population out of genuine interest and concern, I am dismayed by the lack of respect afforded this area and the low morale of many developmental instructors. Conducting and publishing methodologically sound program evaluation research is one logical step in further validating and professionalizing the field.

Program evaluation is a politically risky and time-consuming endeavor,

but a necessary one. It is, however, imperative to reexamine the thrust of program curricula and goals, staffing, placement and exemption criteria, and developmental reading's role in the university. Given the meta-analysis results of Kulik et al. (1983) indicating that developmental programs tend to have a positive, though small to moderate, affect on grade point average and persistence rates, developmental reading's existence on campuses is probably assured. Where the greatest benefits from program evaluation may be reaped, then, may be in curricular change.

REFERENCES

Abraham, A. A., Jr. (1988). Remedial education in college: How widespread is it? *Issues in higher education, 24.* Southern Regional Education Board.

Cranney, A. G. (1987). The improving professionalization of postsecondary developmental reading. *Journal of Reading, 30,* 690–700.

Hennessy, J. H. (1990). At-risk community college students and a reading improvement course: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Reading, 34,* 114–120.

Kulik, C. C., Kulik, J. A., & Schwalb, B. J. (1983). College programs for high-risk and disadvantaged students: A meta-analysis of findings. *Review of Educational Research, 53,* 397-414.

Levine, A. (1989). *Shaping higher education's future: Demographic realities and opportunities, 1990–2000.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mealey, D. L., Frazier, D. W., & Duchein, M. A. (1990, December). *Teacher and student adjustment to integrating study strategy and content material instruction.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Reading Conference, Miami, FL.

Roueche, J. E., & Snow, J. J. (1977). *Overcoming learning problems.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Shannon, P. (1991). Politics, policy, and reading research. In R. Barr, M. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research, volume II* (pp. 147–167). New York: Longman.

U. S. Department of Education (1985). Many college freshmen take remedial courses. *Bulletin.* Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.

Do College Students Who Plan Before Writing Score Better on Essay Exams?

M. K. Gillis
Southwest Texas State University
Mary W. Olson
University of North Carolina at Greensboro

Because we are aware of the nature of the writing process, know that better high school and college writers do more planning and revising than poorer writers at these levels (Perl, 1979; Sommers, 1980), and know that college learning centers and college reading improvement texts (e.g., McWhorter, 1989; Wiener & Bazerman, 1988) suggest that students plan before answering essay questions, we have always informally encouraged our students to take some time to plan their answers before they begin writing in response to essay questions. We have observed that students whose bluebooks show evidence of their doing some planning before they write earn higher grades on their essays than students whose bluebooks show no such evidence.

The purpose of this study was to find whether our observations were accurate. Are there differences in the essay exam scores of college students who do no, some, and/or extensive planning before writing answers to questions on essay exams?

METHOD

Subjects

Subjects were 137 students, 12 male and 125 female, from two universities. One hundred were undergraduates, 41 seniors and 59 sophomores. All were majoring in elementary education and enrolled in one of five sections of three reading methods classes. Thirty-seven were graduate students seeking master's degrees in reading and enrolled in two sections of a psychology of reading course.

Procedures

Instructors in these courses regularly give exams that are at least part essay. The exams used in this study were regularly scheduled exams prepared by the instructors in their usual ways with the exception that the directions for the essay questions included the statement, "You are encouraged to use a page or two in your bluebook before each answer for brainstorming ideas and outlining your answer. You have the time and space. My experience is that your answers will be better if you do this than if you launch into them with no planning." No special attention was given to this direction when the exams were given out. Depending on their section and course, students answered one, three, or five essay questions.

Instructors administered the exams to their own classes, graded the completed exams, and calculated the total percentage of possible points earned. The investigators then classified the amount of planning for each essay as follows: none—no evidence of planning; some—a few notes, a list, and so on; and extensive—notes or list plus outline, map, or arrows connecting ideas, or numbers to indicate order for organization. An overall classification was then assigned to each student's planning. Most students did the same amount of planning for all questions; nine did not. Seven of these students did the same amount of planning for the majority of their answers, so their planning was classified as whatever they did for the majority of the questions. Data from two students whose planning varied significantly from question to question were not used in the analysis. Second raters classified 10 percent of the plans independently. Their classifications agreed with the investigators' classifications in all cases.

Results

Group means and standard deviations are presented in Table 1. An analysis of variance showed that there were significant differences (F [2,134]=26.42, $p<.0001$) in the scores earned by students who did various amounts of planning. A follow-up Scheffe test indicated that there were significant differences ($p<.001$) between all groups.

DISCUSSION

Do college students who plan before writing answers to essay questions score better than those who don't? The present study suggests that the answer is

TABLE 1
Mean Percentage Scores and Standard Deviations by Group

Group	Score	SD
No planning (n = 37)	72.7	3.57
Some planning (n = 62)	82.5	1.54
Extensive planning (n = 36)	96.91	0.94

"yes" and that those who plan the most score the best. Based on these results, a second question emerges. Does requiring students to plan improve scores on essay exams? Planning before writing answers on an essay exam is a metacognitive strategy. The students who participated in this study were free to plan or not to plan before they wrote their answers. There is some evidence (e.g., Collins, Brown, Morgan, & Brewer, 1977) that students who spontaneously use metacognitive strategies use them appropriately, but that students who do not use these strategies spontaneously do not execute them correctly when required to do so.

To determine whether required planning improves scores on essay exams, we are conducting a second study. Most of the students who participated in this study will soon be taking a final exam. They have been told the results of the first study. The directions for their final examinations will contain more detailed directions for planning and will indicate that some points for each answer will be awarded for planning. If the results of the second study demonstrate the efficacy of required planning for essay examinations, then implications for instruction will become apparent.

REFERENCES

Collins, A., Brown, A. L., Morgan, J. L., & Brewer, W. F. (1977). *The analysis of reading tasks and texts* (Tech. Rep. No. 43). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois, Center for the Study of Reading.

McWhorter, K. T. (1989). *College reading and study skills* (4th ed.). Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

Perl, S. (1979). The composing processes of unskilled college writers. *Research in the Teaching of English, 13,* 317–336.

Sommers, N. (1980). Revision strategies of student writers and experienced adult writers. *College Composition and Communication, 31,* 378–389.

Wiener, H. S., & Bazerman, C. (1988). *Reading skills handbook* (4th ed.). Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.

College Students' Reading Assessment: Are We Surveying or Diagnosing?

CINDY GILLESPIE
Ball State University

College developmental reading classes have been in existence at least since the early 1930s (Mallery, 1986; McDonald, 1957; Smith, 1961). Problems associated with the early college reading programs centered around two basic questions: What should be taught? Where should these programs be housed? (Staiger, 1964). Generally speaking, both of these questions have been answered. Most college developmental reading classes focus instruction on improving comprehension, reading speed, vocabulary, study skills, and content reading. The housing issue has been somewhat clarified as evidenced by the fact that college developmental reading classes have been placed under the auspices of reading departments, curriculum and instruction departments, developmental studies programs, or university colleges.

Today issues of concern to college developmental reading instructors seem to be focused on questions such as the following: What is the best way to teach students? Should instruction be focused on skills or a holistic approach to the teaching of reading? How should students be evaluated? What evaluation instruments should be used?

To clarify the issue of evaluation instruments, it becomes necessary to examine the available assessment instruments to determine what the instruments are designed to accomplish, what kinds of scores are obtained, and what can be done with the test scores. It is vitally important to understand clearly the differences between administering a survey test and a diagnostic test.

To facilitate an understanding of the concepts presented, an agreed-upon definition of survey and diagnostic tests is essential. Thorndike and Hagen (1969, p. 654) define a *survey test* as "an achievement test that covers one or more major segments of the curriculum and describes a general level of achievement." Thus, survey tests give a general appraisal of an area of achievement. Conversely, a *diagnostic test* is "sharply focused on some specific aspect of a skill or some specific cause of difficulty in acquiring a skill, and that is useful in suggesting specific remedial actions that might help to improve mastery of that skill" (Thorndike & Hagen, 1969, p. 646). In short, a diagnostic test attempts to determine specific causes of poor performance.

In addition to understanding the differences between survey and diagnostic tests, reading educators must also understand the importance of such differences. The most significant reason for understanding the differences that exist between diagnostic and survey test results lies in educational and instructional decision making. Survey tests are designed to sample skills and abilities, usually vocabulary and reading comprehension. They provide, at most, very general appraisals of the deficiencies of poor readers. Thus, a survey test may be appropriate in determining who may or may not need to enroll in a remedial or developmental reading class, but it is not appropriate for use in determining the strengths or weaknesses of individual students. Conversely, a diagnostic test, which focuses on the mechanics and processes of reading, would not be appropriate to determine who should take a remedial or developmental reading class, but it would be appropriate to use once a student has enrolled in the class to provide a profile of the student's reading skills. The information gained from the results of a diagnostic test can provide a guide for effective instruction.

With definitions of survey and diagnostic tests in place, the diagnostic and survey nature of commonly used assessment instruments will be explored. Four commonly used assessment instruments will be described, followed by a discussion concerning whether each of these tests could be considered a survey test, a diagnostic test, or both.

According to author Alton L. Raygor (1980), the *Minnesota Reading Assessment* is a measure of comprehension, vocabulary, and reading rate. It was designed to measure students' competence in reading skills that are most relevant to school success.

The test consists of three sections. The first consists of one long passage that is used to determine reading rate and retention. Following the passage are 20 comprehension questions. All of the questions are literal. The second section includes 60 vocabulary items (multiple choice, no context) that "occur with some frequency in post-secondary textbooks" (Raygor, 1980, p. 8). The final section is the comprehension section, four passages with five questions per passage. An analysis of the questions reveals that the vast majority of questions are literal.

To meet the qualifications of a survey test, a test must cover one or more major segments of the curriculum and describe a general level of achievement.

The *Minnesota Reading Assessment* covers comprehension, reading rate, and vocabulary. A general level of achievement may be obtained by adding the raw scores and converting them to percentile ranks through the use of tables found in the test manual.

A diagnostic test must focus on some specific aspect of a skill or some specific cause of difficulty in acquiring a skill. The *Minnesota Reading Assessment* can also be considered a diagnostic test. Although this test is not intended for diagnostic purposes, it does provide instructors with an assessment of students' ability to answer literal questions and provides information about students' reading rate. Because the vocabulary is arbitrarily selected, an evaluation of students' knowledge of affixes is not possible. Nor is it possible to evaluate students' abilities to determine meaning from context since the vocabulary words are presented in isolation.

Another frequently used assessment instrument is the *Degrees of Reading Power* (*DRP*). The Touchstone Applied Science Associates (TASA, 1990) suggest that the standard tests (Grades 3–12+) are measures of readers' ability to construct meaning from prose at different levels of difficulty. The advanced test (Grades 6–12+) provides an indication of readers' ability to reason with prose material at differing levels of difficulty. The test manual states that the *DRP* is designed to "assist in the management of instruction, to monitor a student's progress toward specific reading goals, and to provide outcome measures for...accountability" (TASA, 1990, p. 1).

The standard test consists of 10 passages. Seven words are deleted in each passage. The standard *DRP* not only measures the reader's ability to construct meaning from prose, but also assesses the student's ability to predict a missing word in a sentence, measures the process of comprehension, and measures inferential comprehension. The advanced *DRP* consists of eight passages. Three sentences per passage are deleted. Examinees must choose the sentence from five alternatives that integrates propositions within the text. There are three levels of questions: integration of propositions within a paragraph, across adjacent paragraphs, and between two or more nonadjacent paragraphs. The results of the reader's ability to reason with prose are reported in terms of text difficulty or readability.

The standard *DRP* test covers one or more major segments of the curriculum since it measures readers' ability to construct meaning from prose by predicting a missing word in a sentence. A general level of achievement is provided through the results, reported in terms of readability. Thus, the standard *DRP* can be labeled a survey test. The advanced *DRP* provides an indication of readers' ability to reason with prose material. Again, the results are reported in terms of text difficulty or readability, which allows the test to be categorized as a survey test.

Although the authors of the *DRP* specifically state that the test does not measure a subset of reading skills, it can be argued that the test does indeed measure specific skills and, in doing so, allows both the standard and advanced forms to be considered diagnostic. The standard test measures

readers' ability to predict a missing word. This activity appears to be measuring students' ability to use context clues that can be considered a skill and, as such, renders this test a diagnostic instrument. The advanced test asks readers to choose the sentence that integrates propositions within the text. Since the student response profiles indicate which items students answered correctly, one could identify which of the three types of questions students had the most difficulty with and provide instruction accordingly. Thus, the advanced test can also be classified as a diagnostic instrument.

Informal reading inventories (IRIs) have been traditionally designed to evaluate elementary school students' reading performance. Although these instruments can be used to assess college students' reading performance, it is evident, based on the content and topics of passages in commercially produced IRIs, that the passages were designed for younger children. One informal reading inventory designed specifically for college students is the *Secondary & College Reading Inventory* (Johns, 1990).

The test manual explains that this inventory was designed to assess students' reading informally. It can be used to diagnose the reading abilities of individual students or groups of students in secondary schools or at the college level. According to the author, there are two purposes of this inventory: to help place students in appropriate materials and to assist teachers in studying the reading behaviors of students.

The inventory consists of two sections. The first consists of graded word lists that were randomly selected from *A Revised Core Vocabulary*. From the administration of the word lists, teachers can approximate the level of vocabulary that the student recognizes on sight and the phonic and/or structural analysis skills used by the student to identify words not recognized on sight. The second section consists of graded passages with the degree of difficulty ranging from seventh grade through college. There are 10 questions after each passage: 1 main idea, 4 factual, 2 vocabulary in context, 1 inference, 1 sequence, and 1 evaluation. Reading rate can also be determined using guidelines provided in the manual.

The criteria for a survey test are met for the *Secondary & College Reading Inventory*. A general level of achievement (independent, instructional, and frustration reading levels) may be obtained by administering the inventory. Users of the inventory may also estimate an approximate reading rate for each student.

The focus of the inventory, however, is on its use as a diagnostic instrument. This is evidenced not only by the number of pages of the inventory devoted to explaining its use as a diagnostic tool but also by the breakdown of question types provided by the author. The inventory attends to specific aspects of comprehension through analyzing students' responses to different types of comprehension questions. Readers' strengths and weaknesses in comprehension and in word recognition can be assessed. This evaluation may be as detailed as the administrator of the inventory wishes. Without doubt, this inventory can be classified as a diagnostic instrument.

The final assessment instrument to be discussed, and perhaps the most commonly used instrument to evaluate college students' reading abilities, is the *Nelson-Denny Reading Test* (Brown, Bennett, & Hanna, 1981). As stated in the test manual, the primary purpose of this test is "to provide a trustworthy ranking of student ability in three areas of academic achievement: reading comprehension, vocabulary development, and reading rate" (Brown et al., 1981, p. 1). The test is designed to be used for screening, predicting scores, or diagnosing.

There are two subtests in the *Nelson-Denny Reading Test.* The first is the vocabulary section. It consists of 100 multiple-choice items. Readers select from among five alternatives the word closest in meaning to the target word. The vocabulary words are accompanied by some context but not enough to permit students to use the context to determine the meaning of the words. The comprehension tests consist of eight passages and 36 multiple-choice items, each with five response choices.

As a screening device, this test can be used to identify those students who may profit from advanced reading instruction as well as those who may need additional help in reading. Examiners can use the total score for placement of students into special reading programs. Although an exact cut-off score has not been determined for placement in either advanced or remedial classes, one can be determined through trial and observation.

Closely tied to its use as a screening test, the *Nelson-Denny* can also be used to predict academic success. Many research investigations have been conducted to correlate performance on the Nelson-Denny with other measures of scholastic achievement. Again, the authors advise potential administrators of the test to use the total score when using the test as a predictive measure.

Finally, the *Nelson-Denny* can also be used as a diagnostic measure. Scores for reading comprehension, vocabulary, and reading rate may be obtained. Suggestions are provided for determining whether students' performance on any one subtest indicates a problem area. Furthermore, both the vocabulary and comprehension scores can be subdivided according to the type of items. For example, the vocabulary subtest contains 50 items with prefixes and 50 items without. Therefore, examiners could determine whether additional teaching of common prefixes might be warranted. The comprehension subtest can be divided three different ways. First, there are 18 literal questions and 18 interpretive questions, which can be analyzed for patterns of difficulty. Second, questions can be categorized into 15 detail questions, 14 evaluative questions, and 7 purpose/central idea questions. Again, student performance can be analyzed along these dimensions. Finally, the passages themselves are classified into two humanities, three social science, and three science passages. An analysis could produce information about student performance on different types of content. From these analyses, instructional placements for individual students or for an entire class can be made.

The premise of this paper is that each of the tests described here may be used as either a survey test or a diagnostic test. There would be little, if any, disagreement with the premise that some of the aforementioned tests are better suited for survey purposes (*Minnesota Reading Assessment, Degrees of Reading Power, Nelson-Denny*) while others are better suited for diagnostic purposes (*Secondary & College Reading Inventory*). Although authors of assessment instruments may intend for a test to be used in a particular way, their actual use as survey or diagnostic instruments depends solely on what scores are derived and how they are used. The validity of any test is determined in relation to the use that will be made of the results. The decision as to which assessment instrument to use and how to use it should depend on the objectives of the college reading course, the philosophy of the program, and, most importantly, the model and theory of reading and assessment to which one ascribes.

REFERENCES

Brown, J.I., Bennett, J.M., & Hanna, G. (1981). *The Nelson-Denny reading test: Examiner's manual* (Forms E and F). Chicago: Riverside.

Johns, J. (1990). *Secondary & college reading inventory* (2nd ed.). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Mallery, A. (1986). College reading programs. In D. Lumpkin, M. Harshberger, & P. Ransom (Eds.), *Evaluation in reading: Learning, teaching, administering*. Sixth Yearbook of the American Reading Forum. Muncie, IN: Ball State University.

McDonald, A.S. (1957). Influence of a college reading improvement program on academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 48*, 171–181.

Raygor, A.L. (1980). *The Minnesota reading assessment: Examiner's manual*. Rehoboth, MA: Twin Oaks.

Smith, D. (1961). *Learning to learn*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Staiger, R.C. (1964). Humanistic aspects of college and adult reading. In P. Leedy (Ed.), *College–adult reading instruction*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Thorndike, R.L., & Hagen, E. (1969). *Measurement and evaluation in psychology and education* (3rd ed.). New York: John Wiley.

Touchstone Applied Science Associates. (1990). *Advanced DRP test: Teacher's manual*. Brewster, NY: TASA.

Activating Implicit Theories of Reading: A Metacognitive Approach

M. Cecil Smith
Northern Illinois University

Formal scientific theories of reading originate as informal theories of reading in the minds of reading researchers. Although those who study reading have both informal and formal theories about reading, adult readers (who are neither psychologists nor reading specialists) possess informal theories that are derived from their reading instruction, observations of other readers, and personal reading experiences (Fagan, 1988; Harste & Burke, 1977; Meyer & Keefe, 1985). There is now a body of research that has investigated the role of teachers' informal theories in the teaching of reading (Bawden, Buike, & Duffy, 1979; DeFord, 1985; Johnson, 1988), but very little research has examined the theories of typical adult readers.

These informal theories are sometimes referred to as either *implicit*, *lay*, or *personal theories* or *belief systems* (DeFord, 1985; Furnham, 1988). For the sake of consistency, the term *implicit theory* will refer to the layperson's understandings or explanations of reading skills and behaviors.

Implicit theories about reading are a type of metacognitive knowledge. Metacognition refers to the knowledge and control that people have over their cognitive activities, including reading, and consists of two overlapping activities: (1) knowledge about cognition and (2) regulation of cognition through the development and use of strategies for enhancing one's reading efforts (Baker & Brown, 1984). Implicit theories fit within the first type of metacognitive activity and so may influence the development of cognitive strategies.

The purpose of the present study was to examine the role that such implicit theories may play in the reading behavior of young adults. Although literate adults possess such theories, they may not employ their knowledge about reading to enable their own reading behaviors. Given this idea, a study in which college students were given various reading tasks was designed. Following completion of the tasks, the students' implicit theories were assessed to determine whether the activation of such knowledge might improve subsequent performance on a parallel reading task. The investigation reported is a pilot study of the experimental materials and procedures.

METHOD

Subjects

The eight subjects were undergraduate education majors. There were six females and two males. The mean age of the sample was 20.6 years.

Prior knowledge ratings. Subjects were asked to "indicate how knowledgeable you are" about five topics that they would be reading during the experimental portion of the study. An 8-point Likert-type scale was used (0 = "know nothing at all"; 7 = "am an expert on this topic").

Experimental materials. Three types of reading tasks were used in this study: academic, leisure, and work-related reading. The tasks were structured to approximate real-life reading activities.

Four text passages were used. One passage was on the topic of spiral galaxies (astronomy) and another concerned treatment approaches in psychotherapy. These passages were used for the academic tasks. The academic passages were each 210 words in length, consisted of two paragraphs each, and were edited versions of passages taken from college textbooks.

The remaining two passages were used for the leisure reading tasks. They were titled "The Smoky Mountains" and "Southwestern Style," were each 208 words in length, and were edited versions of articles in the travel section of a local newspaper.

Twenty pages from a large catalog published by a national commercial arts supply distributor were photocopied, along with the cover page, table of contents, information regarding how to order supplies, order forms, and an index. These pages were stapled into book form with a yellow cover page. The catalog was used for the work-related reading task.

Procedure

Subjects were tested individually in a small private office. They were first asked to complete the prior knowledge rating forms, followed by a first trial on a reading task, the implicit theory assessment procedure, and the second trial on the reading task. Because of the time required to administer the reading tasks, subjects were given only two of the three tasks. Subjects were randomly assigned to reading task combinations.

For the academic reading task, subjects read the "Spiral Galaxies" passage and then answered five comprehension questions (Trial 1). Subjects were informed that they could take as much time as they wished to read and study the first passage and were told that they would be given a five-question quiz when ready. Subjects were allowed to refer to the passage as they provided written responses to the questions. The test questions asked for information stated in the passage and required no inferences on the subjects' part.

Subjects were also informed, as they were taking the quiz, that they should "think out loud." They were asked to describe everything that they were thinking and doing as they attempted to answer the test questions. Subjects' think-aloud verbalizations were recorded using a portable cassette recorder. The "Psychotherapy" passage was used in Trial 2.

For the leisure reading task, subjects read the "Smoky Mountains" passage first (Trial 1), followed by the "Southwestern Style" passage (Trial 2). Subjects were told to assume that they shared with the experimenter a mutual interest in the passage topic. They were instructed to read the passage with the idea of sharing the information with a "friend" (i.e., the experimenter). Subjects were given as much time as they wished to read the passage. Following reading, subjects were asked to tell the experimenter what they had learned from reading the passage. This recall effort was analogous to the think-aloud procedure for the academic task. The passage was removed and subjects' recollections were recorded on cassette tape.

For the work-related reading task, the goal was to locate information contained in the catalog. Subjects were told to assume that they were employed as a buyer for a commercial arts firm and were engaged in the task of ordering various items for the company. Subjects were instructed to locate two items to be ordered: first, a "wringer press," and second, the least expensive utility cart among several in the catalog (Trial 1). They were also told to "think out loud" as they searched the catalog for the information. For Trial 2, subjects were instructed to find the minimum charge for shipping an order by truck, and the mailing address of the catalog company's central office. Subjects' think-aloud verbalizations were again recorded on cassette tape. Minimal prompting was used to remind subjects to think out loud.

Assessment of "Good Reader" Model

Following Trial 1 for each of the three reading tasks, subjects were asked several questions designed to elicit their implicit beliefs about the skills of a prototypical "good reader." Subjects were asked, "How do you think that a person who is a 'very good reader' might have done this task?" Following their response, subjects were asked, "How do you think that the way you did this task differed from how a 'very good reader' might have done it?" Finally, subjects were asked if there was anything else they could have done to help themselves perform the task more effectively. Responses were recorded on

cassette tape. Following responses to these questions, subjects were presented with Trial 2 on the respective task.

The purpose of Trial 2 was to determine whether performance would improve across trials as a result of subjects' accessing their implicit "good reader" model. That is, subjects had been asked to think about and explicitly describe how a good reader would have completed the same tasks. An attempt was made to minimize practice effects by making the tasks of Trial 2 slightly different from those of Trial 1.

RESULTS

Means and standard deviations for dependent variables are shown in Table 1. Mean ratings of self-reported prior knowledge indicated that the subjects had little knowledge of the target topics in this study. The mean ratings varied from a low of 1.13 (sd = 1.13), Southwestern U.S. topic, to a high of 2.38 (sd = 1.30), psychotherapy topic.

For the academic tasks, subjects' (n = 5) performance decreased from Trial 1 to Trial 2, although this difference was not significant ($t = -1.27$, $p > .05$). Subjects' (n = 5) performance on the work-related reading task did not differ from Trial 1 to Trial 2. Three subjects located both target items across both trials, indicating that this was a relatively easy task.

The leisure reading task required scoring of the subjects' verbal recalls. A scoring system was established based on recalling propositions contained in the passages. A proposition was considered to be a single idea consisting of a noun and verb. The "Smoky Mountains" passage contained 20 such propositions and the "Southwestern Style" passage contained 17 propositions. Subjects received a point for each correct proposition recalled in each passage.

Six subjects read the leisure passages. For the "Smoky Mountains" passage, mean proposition recall was 3.33 (sd = 1.97). For the "Southwestern" passage, mean proposition recall was 3.00 (sd = 1.41). These results indicate that subjects failed to remember much of what they had read immediately prior to the recall task.

Reading Strategy Differences

Evidence was sought that subjects' reading strategy activation had improved from Trial 1 to Trial 2 as a result of "accessing" their implicit theories of

TABLE 1
Means and Standard Deviations for Dependent Variables

Academic Test 1	Academic Test 2	Leisure Recall 1	Leisure Recall 2	Work Trial 1	Work Trial 2
4.30	3.40	3.33	3.00	1.80	1.80
(0.57)	(1.47)	(1.97)	(1.41)	(0.45)	(0.45)

reading. Subjects' think-aloud protocols were examined to determine whether they were more efficient or strategic during Trial 2 than Trial 1.

For the academic reading task, 14 different kinds of strategies were determined across both trials (see Table 2). The number of strategies for Trial 1 and Trial 2 were compared. Subjects used a total of 108 strategies for Trial 1 and 124 strategies for Trial 2. Between-subjects effects were significant ($F = 66.63$,

TABLE 2
Strategies Used by Subjects in Academic and Work-Related Reading Tasks

Academic Reading Task	T1	T2
Recall (without referring to text)	14	8
Reads test question	29	33
Looks back in text to locate answer	19	30
Random text search (e.g., skimming)	5	3
Locates answer to test question	8	10
Checks answer to test question for accuracy	11	12
Poses hypothesis	5	6
Recognizes memory failure	1	1
Changes/revises answer to test question	1	1
Reads text passage aloud	8	13
Self-monitoring of effort	4	5
Checks spelling	2	0
Employs problem-solving solution/strategy	1	0
Asks for task clarification	0	2
	108	124

Work-Related Reading Task	T1	T2
Determine goals/reviews task	9	3
Asks for additional information/task clarification	10	1
Random search (e.g., skimming)	14	13
Directed search (e.g., looks in index)	10	13
Employs problem-solving solution/strategy	17	9
Compares text items/information	8	1
Relies on prior knowledge	0	2
Poses hypotheses	4	5
Asks self questions	3	0
Checks text information for accuracy	1	0
Looks back in text	2	1
Uses pictorial cues	1	1
Recognition of memory failure	1	0
Reads text aloud	0	3
	80	52

$p<.01$), but within-subjects effects were non-significant ($F = 2.20$, $p>.05$).

It is interesting to note the numerical difference in strategies used by the five subjects across trials on the academic task. This difference can be interpreted in at least three ways: The task was easier on Trial 2, subjects were becoming more efficient in their search for information, or there was an interaction between ease of search and efficiency of search. Given that the information in Trial 2 differed qualitatively from that in Trial 1 (i.e., spiral galaxy facts versus psychotherapy facts), the second explanation is more plausible.

Fourteen different kinds of strategies were also identified on the work-related reading tasks across both trials (see Table 2). Again, the number of strategies used for Trial 1 versus Trial 2 were compared. Subjects used 80 strategies on Trial 1 and 52 strategies on Trial 2. Between-subjects effects were significant ($F = 52.22$, $p<.01$), but within-subjects effects were non-significant ($F = 0.87$, $p>.05$).

Despite the lack of quantitative differences on strategy use across trials within subjects, a qualitative examination of the different kinds of strategic behaviors used across trials revealed that subjects engaged in different kinds of activities in Trial 2 than in Trial 1 on the academic tasks. Subjects 2, 3, and 4 posed hypotheses about test answers on Trial 2 (e.g., "that was in the second paragraph, I think....") but did not on Trial 1. These same subjects also recalled answers without referring to the text in Trial 1, but looked back in the text on Trial 2 to find the answers (e.g., "I think that's the only thing...let me check...hmmm...reinforcement techniques"). The other subjects varied little in their strategy use across trials.

Qualitative differences on strategy use were more apparent for the work-related reading tasks. For example, subjects 1, 3, and 4 posed hypotheses about the location of information in the catalog in Trial 2, (e.g., "I'm thinking it's central...as I keep turning the pages that would be my first guess") but did not on Trial 1. Subjects 1 and 4 relied on their prior knowledge to locate information (e.g., "it should say in here where you can send all your stuff back....") and made use of pictorial cues in the catalog ("Well, I saw a picture of a truck") in Trial 2, but not in Trial 1. Also, subject 3 searched the index and table of contents ("I'm...looking for a table of contents") in Trial 2 but not Trial 1.

Finally, subjects' responses to questions concerning their implicit theories ("good reader" model) varied across the three reading tasks. The "good reader" skills described by subjects are listed for each task in Table 3. Subjects suggested that good readers are able to identify quickly the main ideas in a passage, take time to study when necessary, and use their prior knowledge. Subjects also suggested that good readers read strategically by taking notes, using imagery, skimming text, and re-reading to confirm answers. A few apparent misconceptions were also present in subjects' responses. They indicated that good readers can answer test questions

without referring to the text and, in fact, try to memorize so that looking back is unnecessary.

TABLE 3

Subjects' Descriptions of "Good Reader" Skills by Task

Academic Reading
selects and attends to main ideas
anticipates test questions
can answer test questions without rereading text
can skim text quickly
knows that first sentence in each paragraph is a topic sentence
knows that last sentence in each paragraph is a summary sentence
reads title first
underlines main ideas
checks answers to test questions for accuracy
looks for key words and ideas in text
looks for relationships among ideas in text
tries to memorize to avoid looking back in text
takes time to study
rereads passage
knows where to look for information in passage
Leisure Reading
makes written notes to aid memory
rereads passage to review or to confirm ideas
ignores details, focuses on main points
takes an interest in the topic
is open-minded
is able to skim for the main ideas in text
makes mental "notes" while reading
attends to details
uses imagery to aid memory
attends to interest of friend with whom to share the text information
Work-Related Reading
locates information quickly, efficiently
checks index first
checks table of contents
looks for organization cues in catalog
skims catalog if no index is available
takes more time to solve problem (locate information)
is persistent
checks alternative spellings of items to be located
uses prior knowledge
asks someone else if help is required

DISCUSSION

Contrary to expectations, subjects' accessing of their implicit theories of reading failed to improve performance on different reading tasks. These findings contradict previous research that shows that subjects who have an opportunity to reflect on their performance improve their accuracy on test-taking opportunities (Goodchild, 1990) and that subjects who have prior knowledge of material are more efficient and successful searchers of text information (Symons & Pressley, 1990). The present results indicate that although the subjects had adequate general knowledge of good reading skills, this knowledge had no effect on their reading performance. In several cases, subjects commented that they believed themselves to be good readers. However, knowledge about good reading skills and self-knowledge of one's own abilities did not result in subjects' applying this knowledge in performance-enhancing ways. It may be that, although adults have general knowledge about the skills needed for being a good reader, more specific and detailed knowledge is needed to improve one's reading performance in the ways that were assessed in this study.

Finally, this research demonstrates that merely having knowledge about what one could or should do when reading or remembering does not mean that people will choose to do these things (Brown, 1988). Although some research has shown that children's metacognitions about their learning activities serve to enhance further learning (Brown & Kane, 1988), other research with adult subjects has provided mixed results. That is, adults' performance on tests have been shown either to improve (Pressley, Borkowski, & Schneider, 1987) or to be unaffected (Pressley & Ghatala, 1988) when metacognitive knowledge is accessed. The work of Pressley and his colleagues suggests that the type of task will determine how well metacognitive knowledge is accessed and employed. Perhaps the reading tasks employed in this study were not appropriate for activating the readers' metacognitive knowledge in ways that enabled them to improve their performance or to be more efficient readers.

REFERENCES

Baker, L., & Brown, A. (1984). Metacognition and reading. In P.D. Pearson (Ed.), *Handbook of reading research.* New York: Longman.

Bawden, R., Buike, S., & Duffy, G.G. (1979). *Teacher conceptions of reading and their influence on instruction.* (Research Series No. 47). East Lansing, MI: Institute for Research on Teaching.

Brown, A.I. (1988). Motivation to learn and understand: On taking charge of one's own learning. *Cognition and Instruction, 5,* 311–321.

Brown, A.I., & Kane, M.J. (1988). Preschool children can learn to transfer: Learning to learn and learning from example. *Cognitive Psychology, 20,* 493–523.

DeFord, D. (1985). Validating the construct of theoretical orientation in reading instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly, 20,* 351–367.

Fagan, W.T. (1988). Concepts of reading and writing among low-literate adults. *Reading Research and Instruction, 27,* 47–60.

Furnham, A. (1988). *Lay theories: Everyday understanding of problems in the social sciences.* New York: Pergamon.

Goodchild, F.M. (1990, April). *Test-taking strategies of successful and unsuccessful college students.* Paper presented at annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston, MA.

Harste, J.C., & Burke, C. (1977). A new hypothesis for reading teacher research: Both the teaching and learning of reading is theoretically based. In P.D. Pearson (Ed.), *Reading: Theory, research and practice* (pp. 32-40). New York: Mason.

Johnson, J. (1988). The relationship between preservice teachers' instruction of reading and their emerging conceptions of reading. In J.E. Readence & R.S. Baldwin (Eds.), *Dialogues in literacy research* (pp. 355–361). Chicago: National Reading Conference.

Meyer, V., & Keefe, D. (1985). Models of the reading process held by ABE and GED instructors. *Reading Horizons, 25,* 133–136.

Pressley, M., Borkowski, J.G., & Schneider, W. (1987). Cognitive strategies: Good strategy users coordinate metacognition and knowledge. In R. Vasta & G. Whitehurst (Eds.), *Annals of child development* (Vol. 5, pp. 89–129). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Pressley, M., & Ghatala, E.S. (1988). Delusions about performance on multiple-choice comprehension tests. *Reading Research Quarterly, 23,* 454–464.

Symons, S., & Pressley, M. (1990, April). *Evaluation of Guthrie's model of search in a text domain.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston, MA.

KNOWING ABOUT HOME AND COMMUNITY LITERACY

Language Experience in a Family Literacy Project

ELINOR P. ROSS
Tennessee Technological University

The Upper Cumberland region of Tennessee is characterized by poverty, undereducated adults, and high teen-age pregnancy and high school dropout rates. The problems of the region are representative of those of Southern Appalachia, as well as many other rural areas across the nation.

The Family Literacy Project has addressed these problems in Monterey, Tennessee, through a variety of activities with the goal of raising the literacy level of the community. Specific objectives of the project include (1) improved language skills among elementary students, (2) increased parental involvement in the schools, (3) reduction of the teen-age pregnancy rate, and (4) reduction of the school dropout rate. Listed below are the program strategies employed in the project:

1. Language enrichment for lower elementary students
2. Prime Time reading for upper elementary student
3. "Class of 2000" emphasis in K-12
4. Faculty awareness of student problems
5. Parent visitation in the schools
6. Teacher cohort on cooperative and mastery learning
7. Expanded number of student teachers
8. Workshops for science and mathematics teachers.

The schools have created a Family Literacy Steering Committee consisting of two principals, two teachers from each school, and two faculty members from Tennessee Technological University. The teachers involved in the project

implemented cooperative and mastery learning activities throughout the curriculum. Cooperative learning curriculum materials were purchased for reading and mathematics in grades three through six. The elementary school initiated parent visitations for first grade parents and Prime Time reading for fourth grade students. In the fall of 1989, the carnival parade was a cooperative effort of the two schools and featured a Stay in School — Class of 2000 theme.

Teachers were revitalized and empowered with new skills gained through the cohort experience. Funds from GTE enabled the purchase of small items that have been critical to program success. These included t-shirts for Prime Time reading, learning style inventories for all children in selected grades, cooperative learning materials, and other instructional materials.

Since the Family Literacy Program is integrated throughout the elementary and secondary schools, all students should be affected in some way. The program does not meet all needs of this at-risk population but is a significant beginning toward the long-term goal of raising the educational level of the community.

The remainder of this paper focuses on the strategy of language enrichment for lower elementary students, which employed the language experience approach for reading instruction.

RESEARCH RELATED TO THE LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE APPROACH

The language experience approach (LEA) for literacy instruction has been recognized by scholars as an effective strategy compatible with a whole language orientation. LEA includes children reading dictated versions of personal experiences. Van Allen (1973) states the LEA rationale as follows:

> What I can think about, I can talk about.
> What I can say, I can write—or someone can write for me.
> What I write, I can read.
> I can read what I write, and what other people can write for me to read. (p. 158)

Frank Smith (1975) believes that it is more important for beginning readers to get meaning from the printed page than to learn isolated decoding skills. Hall (1984) agrees that the communication of meaning should be the major focus in learning to read. Cramer (1971) also endorses such a language experience approach: "A child is more likely to learn to read when the activities associated with the approach have functional relationships with his language, experiences, needs, and desires" (p. 33).

In a review of research on LEA, Nielsen (1989) claims that LEA has proven to be extremely effective for promoting reading development in linguistically different students.

Pikulski (1984) notes that LEA is particularly effective in promoting oral language development, concept maturity, a positive attitude toward reading,

and knowledge of language terms in beginning readers. All children have opportunities to discuss their experiences, thus developing oral language skills, vocabulary, and concepts. There is no failure and no ability grouping, so at-risk students are less likely to develop negative self-concepts toward reading. Downing (1976) offered evidence that beginning readers are likely to be confused about terms such as *word*, *letter*, and *sentence* when presented in isolated contexts. The LEA, conversely, introduces these terms in context so that understanding develops naturally.

Much of the research on LEA has been of the method-comparison type and suggests that the overall reading achievement of students instructed with LEA is equal or superior to the achievement of students instructed in other methods (Hall, 1977). In two experimental programs at the first grade level, Pienaar (1977) and Allen and Laminack (1982) observed that LEA groups outperformed control groups instructed in other methods. Comparing strategies used by beginning readers during basal reading and while reading an LEA dictated story, Thomas (1980) found that LEA children read more complex stories and were able to process them more proficiently. Kelly (1977) noted that a group of third graders using LEA outperformed a basal group in knowledge of basic sight vocabulary. Aspulund and Sunal (1976) found similar results with second grade students.

Since improved attitude toward reading is a claim often made for LEA, some research has been conducted to investigate affective factors. Ramsey (1985) found that LEA resulted in a significant increase in willingness to participate in reading-related activities and in student interest toward reading. Fishman (1977) noted that both first graders and their teachers had more positive attitudes when using LEA than basal readers. Stauffer (1973) reported that, although LEA and basal groups showed no attitudinal differences, the students in LEA chose to read more books.

Other benefits attributed to LEA include improved writing and spelling skills. In a summary of studies by Hall (1977), it appears that students instructed with LEA write longer stories, use more varied vocabulary, and spell and punctuate more accurately and more often than other students. Recent whole language findings support the idea that when reading and writing are combined, children become more proficient in both areas (Graves, 1983; Calkins, 1983; Hansen, Newkirk, & Graves, 1985). Spelling accuracy of LEA students also appears to be superior to that of non–LEA students due to the many opportunities to write (Cramer, 1970; Stauffer, 1966, 1973).

Despite the many positive features of LEA, it is not a panacea for helping culturally different children learn to read (Lamb, 1984). There still remains some doubt about its effectiveness and its usefulness for classroom teachers. There is very little research on LEA as it relates to comprehension (Nielsen, 1989). Moreover, a study by Lamb (1984) comparing LEA students and basal reader students revealed no significant differences between the groups on

achievement test scores. Teachers may find LEA more difficult to understand and implement than basal readers.

PURPOSE AND PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

It has been observed that in a rural community in Tennessee, students in fifth grade begin to fail the language and reading portions of standardized tests and never pass them again. School and university personnel hypothesized that an intervention program that would develop students' language facility when they begin school might increase their likelihood of passing the tests. The traditional basal reader program used for reading instruction did not relate directly to the students' language patterns and experiences. The researcher sought funding to provide reading and language instruction with the language experience approach, in addition to instruction with the basal reader. It was believed that instructors could help children acquire a stronger foundation in language by basing instruction on children's prior knowledge and personal use of language.

The present study occurred over a period of one and a half years (from January 1989 to May 1990) at Uffelman Elementary School in Monterey, Tennessee. A university faculty member from Tennessee Technological University supervised the project, and a total of six research assistants in reading provided the instruction. On most occasions, two instructors worked with each experimental group.

Each year the project began with a meeting of the teachers whose students were involved, the principal of the school, the university faculty member, and the research assistants. Plans were made for scheduling activities for two groups of children from each of two grades for 30–45 minutes per week. The location for the lessons varied somewhat because of conflicts with other activities. Space was often cramped, but a place was found for each lesson.

Lessons consisted of introductory experiences, discussions, chart writing from student dictation, chart reading, and follow-up activities. Art was often integrated with the language lessons, and children's work was displayed on hall bulletin boards. Reading award-winning children's literature to each group was also part of each lesson. Instructors provided enrichment through songs, music, and art. Each session was planned to include as many language activities as possible. Children were given cards for writing new words and practicing them. These word banks were placed in Zip-Lock bags.

Each year the children participated in two major projects: the science fair and bookmaking, with a trip to the book fair held at Tennessee Tech. The research assistants involved the students in science projects that were entered in the annual regional Tennessee Tech science fair. The second-year project won second place in its division. This project was a model of a volcano with student-dictated charts about volcanoes and the events in the experiment. The bookmaking project enabled each child to write and illustrate a story and "publish" it as a book. The books were later displayed at the annual Tennessee

Tech book fair, which the children attended. Both of these special events were intended to develop language skills and build self-esteem.

The research assistants and faculty member attempted to establish close communication with classroom teachers so that the LEA would carry over into daily classroom activities. Teachers received lesson plans for each lesson, and the research assistants, who updated the teacher on the children and the lessons, picked up the children from classes and returned them. Research assistants consulted teachers about proposed lessons and special projects, and they gave them written updates that described progress and expressed appreciation.

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The research design for the project included preassessment and postassessment of students' knowledge of Dolch sight words and awareness of sequence, as determined by the ability to arrange pictures from a story in proper order. The treatment was based on the use of the language experience approach with the low reading groups in selected primary classrooms. One control group and two experimental groups of eight children per group were established.

Testing was conducted in an informal, naturalistic setting by the faculty member and research assistants. Inasmuch as possible, stories were similar in familiarity and difficulty from pre- to postassessment, and the first three levels of the Dolch words were used on both occasions. Children were assessed individually, and scores of the number of known Dolch words and the number of correctly sequenced pictures were recorded. Testing took two weeks to complete at the beginning and at the end of each academic phase. The half-year and the year-long studies were analyzed separately. During the first phase, kindergarten and first grade students were studied, whereas during the second phase students in grades one and two received the treatments. There was some overlap among the children from one year to the next.

FINDINGS

At the conclusion of the winter-spring 1989 phase, T-tests were used to determine whether significant differences between control and experimental groups existed for either word recognition or knowledge of sequence at both kindergarten and first grade levels. No significant differences were found.

In the year-long study that ran from September 1989 to May 1990, T-tests performed on the first grade test results showed that the experimental groups performed significantly better than the control group on both the post–Dolch and postsequence tests. T-tests performed on the second grade test results indicated that the experimental groups performed significantly better than the control group on the postsequence test only.

OBSERVATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Based on their observations, the research assistants found that the LEA children improved in their ability to dictate complete sentences and in their use of language. The children seemed to progress faster in sequencing than in word recognition, perhaps because little time was provided for activities with word banks. Activities were geared for success, and each student achieved some measure of success.

This project was intended to involve high school students, classroom teachers, home language and experiences, and university faculty. Involvement by high school students was minimal during the first half-year and was not attempted during the second phase. Despite efforts of research assistants to involve classroom teachers in the language experience approach, the teachers appeared to be too busy with regular classroom instruction to try to understand and use procedures recommended by the LEA instructors. Thus, there is likely to be little carryover after the program has concluded.

The placement of students within control and experimental groups was intended to be random, but teachers placed the children whom they believed would benefit most from LEA in the experimental groups and put the more able students in the control groups. Thus, the experimental groups consisted of the lower-achieving students, which may have affected the statistical results.

Because of variation in group membership, the study covered two brief periods of time instead of one longer period. Moreover, the length of time allotted by the teachers for working with the groups of children was so short that the instructors had little time to develop lessons fully. Although teachers were asked to encourage students to practice their word bank cards during the week, few, if any, teachers carried this out. Thus, most children received instruction for 30–45 minutes once a week without any reinforcement in the classroom. It is believed that this amount of time was too brief for any significant growth in language or literacy.

Teachers varied in their responsiveness to the project, although all appeared to be eager to participate initially. They seemed pleased with the products (science fair entries, art projects, and bookmaking), but showed little interest in the process through which these projects were developed. One teacher refused on occasion to allow her children to attend the LEA lessons until they had completed their regular classroom seatwork.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The premise of using language experience to bolster the language skills and self-esteem of low socioeconomic, rural children is sound. It is in keeping with the whole language philosophy that is now well accepted by many educators.

A major weakness of this particular project was the teachers' lack of commitment and involvement. In future projects of this type, teachers need to value the program enough to provide priority time for students to participate, cooperate in reinforcing the activities for these children in the classroom, and learn how to use the LEA so that they can extend LEA learning in their classrooms and continue its use in future years.

Positive aspects of the project included building oral language and reading skills among young children. As they watched their dictation being recorded and as they wrote and kept their word bank cards, they began to see purposes for reading and writing. By participating in book fair and science fair projects, they developed more positive self-concepts because they realized that they were able to create something of value. The children looked forward to the weekly sessions and enjoyed the activities.

REFERENCES

Allen, E.G., & Laminack, L.L. (1982). Language experience reading — it's natural! *The Reading Teacher, 35* (6), 708–714.

Aspulund, B.B., & Sunal, C. (1976). *The effectiveness of the Language Experience Approach as a supplement to a basal program.* (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 182 705)

Calkins, L.M. (1983). *Lessons from a child.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Cramer, R.L. (1970). An investigation of first-grade spelling achievement. *Elementary English, 47,* 230–237.

Downing, J. (1976). The reading register. *Language Arts, 53,* 762–766, 780.

Fishman, T.G. (1977). A comparison of two different programs for implementing the language experience approach to beginning reading with a basic reader program and phonic supplement. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 38* (4), 1872–A.

Graves, D. (1983). *Writing: Teachers and children at work.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Hall, M.A. (1984). Beginning reading instruction. In A.J. Harris & E.R. Sipay (Eds.), *Readings on reading instruction.* New York: Longman.

Hall, M.A. (1977). *The language experience approach for teaching reading.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Hansen, J., Newkirk, T., & Graves, D. (1985). *Breaking ground: Teachers relate reading and writing in the elementary school.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Kelly, A.M. (1977). Sight vocabularies and experience stories. *Elementary English, 52,* 327–328.

Lamb, P. (1984). Teaching reading to children with special needs. In A.J. Harris & E.R. Sipay (Eds.), *Readings on reading instruction.* New York: Longman.

Nielsen, D.C. (1989). Language experience: A method for learning to read and reading to learn. In R.A. Thompson (Ed.), *Classroom reading instruction.* Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Pienaar, P.T. (1977). Breakthrough in beginning reading: Language experience approach. *The Reading Teacher, 30* (5), 489–496.

Pikulski, J. (1984). Readiness and prereading development. In A.J. Harris & E.R. Sipay (Eds.), *Readings on reading instruction.* New York: Longman.

Ramsey, W. (1985, September). *Infusing clinical reading instruction with whole language.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Reading and Language Arts Educator's Conference. Kansas City, MO. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 266 411).

Smith, F. (1975). *Comprehension and learning.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Stauffer, M.A. (1973). *Comparative effects of a language arts approach and a basal reader approach to first grade reading achievement.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Newark, DE: University of Delaware.

Stauffer, R.G. (1966). The effectiveness of language arts and basic reading approaches to first grade reading instruction. *The Reading Teacher, 20,* 18–24.

Thomas, S.K. (1980). *The effect of reader-authored materials on the performance of beginning readers.* (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 204 283).

Van Allen, R. (1973). The language-experience approach. In R. Karlin (Ed.), *Perspectives on elementary reading: Principles and strategies of teaching.* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Home Literacy Practices of Parents Whose Children Are Enrolled in a Whole Language Kindergarten

Timothy V. Rasinski
Beverly Bruneau
Richard P. Ambrose
Kent State University

Parents are increasingly viewed as key players in the education of their children. In a review of research on parental involvement in their children's schooling, Henderson (1988) reports that the link between parental involvement and student achievement is substantial. When parents become involved in their children's learning, children's academic performance improves. Additionally, Henderson (1988) notes that the learning environment in the home plays a crucial role in learning. She concludes that "studies show that building a strong learning environment at home...powerfully affects student achievement..."(p. 150). Moreover, in a study of appropriate roles for parents in their children's education, Williams and Stallworth (1983–1984) report that parents want to play active and substantive roles in their children's educational experiences.

In reading education, the role of parents and the home in providing a foundation and support for children's literacy learning has also been recognized as important (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985). The creation of literate home environments is viewed as an important way for parents to nurture growth in literacy. Literate home environments include activities, artifacts, and policies that involve and promote literacy among family members.

Durkin's (1966) seminal study of children who began school already knowing how to read pointed to several aspects of the home environment that promote literacy. Among these were parents regularly reading to their children, providing children with reading and writing materials, and acting

as models of literate persons for their children. More recently, Taylor and Dorsey-Gaines (1988) found that inner-city children who were successful in learning to read and write had parents who were supportive of their learning. This support took the form of creating home environments that were rich in literacy. Parents provided their children with books, encouraged their children to read and write, and were purposeful users of literacy in their own lives.

The present study attempted to extend this line of inquiry by focusing on families whose children were successful but not necessarily exceptional students in kindergarten. It appeared that previous work in this area focused on children who were exceptional in their success, either learning to read prior to beginning formal reading instruction or excelling in school under extremely difficult environmental conditions. The present investigation sought to explore home literacy practices in families in which children fell within a more normal range of successful experiences.

METHOD

Procedures

The subjects for the study were eight parents (all mothers) whose children had been enrolled the previous year in a kindergarten program that maintained a whole language curricular orientation. The children of the parents (four girls and four boys) were successful in kindergarten, although none had been deemed exceptional in the progress they made in learning to read and write by the teacher, parent, or third-party observers who were part of the research team. All parents were highly supportive and pleased with their children's progress and with the curriculum that had been used in the kindergarten.

Parents were interviewed by one of the researchers during the two months (June or July) immediately following the children's completion of kindergarten. The parents were asked a set of questions concerning their approaches to literacy learning and their satisfaction with the kindergarten's holistic curriculum. One question asked parents to describe what they did at home, either before or during kindergarten, that contributed to their child's growth in learning to read and write. Since parents were not prompted or directed to consider any specific ideas or activities, it was assumed that they considered responses significant. All interviews took at least 30 minutes to complete and were tape recorded and later transcribed for analysis.

Analysis

Each interview was analyzed through categorical analysis (Spradley, 1979) in which domains or categories were established based on parents' identification of important home literacy activities. An individual case was developed

for each of the parents based on the analysis. Each of the eight cases was then searched for themes relevant to the research question.

RESULTS

Several home-based literacy activities emerged from our analysis. They will be presented here along with comments by the parents that supported our identification of the activity as significant.

Reading Aloud

All parents identified substantial and regular periods of reading aloud to children as a significant home literacy activity. One parent's response reflected the sentiment of the others, "I think he learned a lot from me just reading on a daily basis. We probably digest 10 books a day from the library." Another parent stated, "We read to both kids; it's been a fairly regular routine before going to bed." A third parent reported spending 30 minutes every day reading to her daughter. Another reported reading to her child every night beginning at age three.

The pervasiveness and depth of parental reading to their children appears to make it a critical home literacy practice of the parents interviewed. Children were read to daily, and the sessions were often quite extensive with several books read during any one session.

A number of parents reported enriching the read aloud sessions by involving the child in the reading. Several mentioned discussing the stories and pictures in the book after reading. Two parents mentioned elaborating on the stories, often by creating variations of the originals that sometimes included the children themselves as central characters. One mother told us, "We started making up stories....Her dad would make up elaborate fantasies where Christi would appear." These stories sometimes featured characters from familiar books read to the daughter, which added to her enjoyment. Two parents included the child in the actual reading of the story itself: "We read every night after dinner and take turns. She'll read a book and I'll read a book." In the other family, the child reread an easy book after a parent read it to her.

Dictated Texts

Four parents described taking dictation from their children. The child would dictate a story, message, sentence, or list to the parent who would transcribe it. The written text was then read by parents and children. One parent took dictation on the home computer as a way of familiarizing the child with the machine. Another mother reported that her son enjoyed dictating stories to accompany his independent drawings. She stated that later he "reads the stories to the whole family." A third parent told us that she began taking dictation two years previously as a way to introduce her daughter to journals. The

child was encouraged to dictate the events of her day to her mother, who wrote them in a journal.

Interest in Words

An interest in words demonstrated by children and nurtured by parents seemed to be another common factor in the homes of the parents we interviewed. Parents reported that many children expressed an early interest in words, and the parents developed the interest through games and other activities. One parent believed that through dictation activities her son "picked up" sight words. Another reported that oral word games, such as opposites or rhyming words, and singing, especially during car trips, served to interest her daughter in reading and language. Informal activities, such as car trips, seemed to form the context and catalyst for such word activities. One mother reported that "When we drive along, Kathy picks out words on the street. If we're in a store,...she'll ask what this word is." A fourth parent reported that when her son plays by himself, he likes to write lists of words related to his current interests. She added that the activity is not so much copying words as it is thinking them up and then getting help in writing them out. Still another parent reported that she labels items at home to direct her daughter's attention to the written representation for household items. Finally, one mother told us that she would write new words that her child could read on index cards. The child liked to play with and count these cards and, with her mother, to make silly sentences with them.

Writing

Writing, especially writing for real purposes, was important in several homes. Letter writing was a key activity. One parent reported that her daughter had "developed a greater interest in writing—she writes letters to her grandparents, likes writing to her friends in school, and if I write a note to the teacher in school, she likes to write part of it." In another home a parent mentioned that her daughter makes shopping lists, writes letters to relatives, and keeps a journal. A third parent also reported that Mary "did a lot of writing, thank-you notes, letters to relatives." Mary even responded in writing to items in magazines for children and one time wrote a letter to the President.

Informal and Functional Literate Environments

All these home literacy activities took place in environments that could best be described as functional, informal, filled with books and other reading materials, and in which the parents acted as personal models of literate behavior. Not once did a parent mention doing an activity that was aimed at practicing or teaching a particular isolated reading skill. All home literacy activities mentioned were grounded in real and functional purposes. Whether reading a book for the sheer pleasure of enjoying a good story or

writing to communicate with a friend, all activities that parents engaged in with their children seemed to tap into expressed needs or interests. One parent put personal notes in her child's lunch box on a napkin for the teacher to read to the child. "At first she couldn't read them and then all of a sudden I realized she was reading the notes," the parent reported. Later, this parent concluded, "If something is functionally based, it's more successful no matter what the population and no matter what the age. If you see the applicability of something, you're more likely to want to learn it."

None of the parents mentioned that they systematically planned and implemented a strategy for teaching their children to read. The activities they described seemed to be a natural part of family life and parent-child interaction. One mother emphasized that she viewed an informal approach as most appropriate for literacy learning. "Just wherever we are, we pick up on what she's asking for." Another reported that her daughter's interest in reading came not from the mother but was, indeed, initiated by the child herself. Mary first became interested in reading when she would pick out signs, "We'd be driving and she'd see *Acme* in the car and know it was the grocery store. She'd read *Coke* on cans and when she was three or four, she would read signs on TV."

The home environment itself was an important part of these children's growth in literacy. One mother complained of the "stupid" books she herself had had to read as a child and attributed that experience to her own dislike of childhood reading. She believes now that it is important to have interesting books around the home and classroom. Another parent reported that "We've got books all over the place." She added that Rick has "inherited" a set of books at home, and his parents add to his collection regularly by purchasing books for him.

Similarly, several parents noted the importance of modeling literate behavior for their children. Mary's mother told us, "My husband and I modeled a lot of reading so that Mary would know it's natural to just pick up a book or to write." Rick's mother also noted, "both my husband and myself read a lot....We value that and the kids see it."

DISCUSSION

The picture that emerges from these individual descriptions of concerned parental involvement in literacy is one that resembles whole language instruction. This is not unusual, since many whole language practices in classrooms are based on what parents do with their children in nurturing language and literacy.

Literacy is not explicitly or systematically taught in these homes. Rather, reading and writing are presented to children in a playful and functional manner within the context of normal family activities. Children are able to infer from the behavior of their parents and from the literate-rich environment that surrounds them that learning to read and write is something important in their families' lives and something they should want to do themselves.

Within this informal yet literate environment, parents read regularly and extensively to their children. The reading is interesting and interactive. Children are invited to comment, ask questions, and read themselves. Parents talk about stories with their children and compose their own stories for their children with storybook characters.

Writing, too, is an important aspect of these families' lives. When children are unsure of their writing abilities, parents are quick to take dictation. Later, children try out writing on their own, always for functional purposes. Writing is used to get a story down, to communicate with a friend or relative, to make a list of things to remember, or to express one's own feelings.

An early interest in words also seems to be a dominant part of the literate home lives of these children. Children discover words and take an interest in manipulating them. Word games in the car, learning to recognize words from stories, making lists of important and interesting words, recognizing words in the environment, and writing down words on cards are some of the ways children play with words in their homes. Children seem to realize tacitly that words are an important part of reading and writing, and parents seem to capitalize on this interest in fun and risk-free ways.

Although rather limited in its scope, this study points to two conclusions. First, the home literacy activities described in this study are similar to those described in previous work and tend to validate the conclusions derived from previous work. Specifically, the richly literate yet informal home environment as the context for read aloud, purposeful writing, and sophisticated levels of parent-child interaction about stories, words, and experiences seems to form the foundation for growth in literacy learning.

The second conclusion springs from the observation that the literacy activities in the home were highly congruent with those found in the whole language-based kindergarten. Children in the kindergarten experienced little confusion about reading and writing. What they did in the classroom was an extension of what they did at home. This seems to suggest that if the home activities we described do indeed lead to successful starts and good growth in literacy at the kindergarten level, then kindergarten programs that maintain a whole language orientation may act as an ideal bridge between home and school learning. Inasmuch as the literacy activities found in a whole language program reflect the types of activities found in the homes of successful literacy learners, such curricula should facilitate the transition from home to school and provide continuity in what is being increasingly recognized as sound literacy instruction.

REFERENCES

Anderson, R.C., Hiebert, E.H., Scott, J., & Willamson, I.A.G. (1985). *Becoming a nation of readers: The report of the Commission on Reading.* Washington, DC: National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education.

Durkin, D. (1966). *Children who read early.* New York: Columbia University, Teachers College Press.

Henderson, A.T. (1988). Parents are a school's best friends. *Phi Delta Kappan, 70,* 148–153.

Spradley, J. (1979). *The ethnographic interview.* New York: Holt.

Taylor, D., & Dorsey-Gaines, C. (1988). *Growing up literate.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Williams, D., & Stallworth, J. (1983–1984). *Parent involvement in education project.* Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.

Parent Involvement Through Workshops

NANCY B. MASZTAL
University of Southern Mississippi

Recent national publications, such as *Becoming a Nation of Readers* (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985) and *What Works* (1986), acknowledge the importance of parental influence and parental support in the education of the nation's children. More than ever, schools are making a special effort to involve parents in their educational programs. Parents are invited into the classrooms to observe and participate. Parents are also being involved in workshops to learn about classroom happenings and how to work with their children in positive, supportive ways at home.

I recently conducted a parent workshop in a nearby town. The purpose of the workshop was to provide general information about learning and parental involvement with reading as well as to provide specific suggestions for assisting with study at home. It was requested that the parents be taught a study technique that their intermediate grade children could be taught the following day. It was thought that having both parent and child know the same study technique would enhance study sessions at home.

The following text, "Children and Learning: How Parents Can Help," was developed for the workshop. The wording is deliberately informal. Headings were built into the text to help with the teaching of the selected study technique. Information about the study technique, a modification of SQ3R (Robinson, 1961), which included writing in the recitation step, was included under the section on studying textbooks.

During workshop time, parents were reminded of the purpose of the workshop, and it was explained that the text would provide them with information

about learning, reading, and studying and would also be used in the workshop to learn a study technique. The steps in the modified SQ3R were presented on a large newsprint pad and explained in detail. Participants then completed a simulation of the technique. Participants responded accordingly to each step, either reading silently or reciting out loud as they answered the question they had posed. Oral responses to questions were written on the large newsprint pad to demonstrate that the note-taking step added to the technique.

This workshop is only one example of how parents are currently being encouraged and invited to participate in educational programs today. The text for the workshop follows.

CHILDREN AND LEARNING: HOW PARENTS CAN HELP

LEARNING

Factors Important for Learning

Parents want their children to get an education. They want them to learn, to have a good life, and perhaps to succeed where the parents have not. One gets an education through life experiences and through formal instruction. For children formal instruction takes place in a classroom. A teacher presents information and guides the children in learning activities.

Adults sometimes forget that learning is a complex process. Students come from many home environments so they bring varied experiences and knowledge to the classroom when they arrive at school. Since no two children are alike, they develop at their own rates and progress in school according to their own clocks, with some learning more quickly than others. While some children seem to learn with any kind of materials and teaching techniques, other children seem to do best with a particular approach or kind of instruction.

There are some things that parents can do that will help make learning easier. Energy is needed to pay attention and listen or work. Parents can make sure their child eats good foods in the morning before school, at lunch, and at night so there is energy for learning. They can also make sure children get enough sleep at night to keep them wide awake in school. Tired, sleepy children do not have the energy to pay attention, listen, or work.

Good eyesight and good hearing are also important for learning. Parents can have a preschool "eyes and ears check" before children enter school. Generally, eye exams given at school report a child's vision for reading the chalkboard, not vision for reading a book. Vision problems can usually be corrected by glasses. However, the teacher needs to be told if there is a hearing problem so the

child can be seated where she or he can hear. While teaching is the teacher's responsibility, parents can help make teaching and learning easier.

GUIDELINES FOR PARENTS WHEN WORKING WITH THEIR CHILDREN

As parents help their children with studying, the experience should be positive for both parent and child. Suggestions for helping to make a study session successful include the following:

1. Do not compare your child with a brother or sister or with other children. Since children learn at different rates and are good at different subjects, sports, or activities, comparing them is unfair. It only frustrates and causes poor attitudes.

2. Be patient, supportive and encouraging. Remember, learning takes time and progress can be slow. An activity that is easy for an adult may be very hard for a child. Children need patience rather than rushing. They should receive enough help so they can be successful and enough encouragement so they will keep trying. They need to feel safe about asking questions or answering questions. They should know that a wrong answer is better than no answer. They should be unafraid to TRY to answer questions when unsure. With parent support and encouragement they can find the answers (Rasinski & Fredericks, 1988).

3. Make your child aware of improvement. Reward achievement. Be sure to let your child know you are proud of progress made... "I'm so proud of you—8 math problems correct out of 10. Keep up the good work!" There will be times when you may want to provide encouragement and or rewards in other ways...a new book, game, or a trip to the movies (Schumm & Gordon, 1989).

4. Try not to show disappointment if your child does not do as well as you would like. Avoid criticizing and continue to encourage. Look for your child's strengths. A child with poor performance does not need to be reminded that she or he is doing poorly. That will only contribute to less self-confidence. Instead, reassure your child of your love (Radenich & Schumm, 1988).

5. Take breaks. If a child gets too frustrated or hits the point where she or he can no longer concentrate, take a break. Moving to another subject for a while may help (Radenich & Schumm, 1988).

6. Encourage independence in doing homework. Encourage your child to read directions independently but be there to help if instructions are not understood. Parents should encourage, guide and support children while they are doing homework, but they should not do the homework for their child (Schumm & Gordon, 1989).

7. Build your child's self-esteem. Children need to believe in themselves. They need to know when they have done a good job and be encouraged to keep trying when progress is slow. Parents are a child's first teacher, supporter and confidence builder.
8. Have a positive attitude toward school. Problems that you may have with your child's teacher should not be discussed with or in front of the child. Instead, emphasize the importance of regular attendance at school, listening carefully in school, and learning. If there is a problem, make an appointment to speak privately with the teacher (Canter & Hausner, 1987).

HOW PARENTS CAN HELP WITH READING

While some learning in the classroom can take place through listening, a great deal of classroom learning is through reading. Reading is probably the most important skill a child can learn. Once a child can read she or he is able to learn independently.

A parent can prepare a child for reading by talking to and listening to her or him. Through these everyday activities parents teach their children how to carry on a conversation, and they increase their child's knowledge of words and word meanings (Simmons & Lawrence, 1981).

Children need to be read to by parents, brothers, sisters, other family members, friends, and/or neighbors. Reading should be done on a daily basis with stories that are of interest to the child. When reading picture books and stories or telling stories to children, parents show children that stories and reading are fun. As a result, the child will develop an interest in reading (Rasinski & Fredericks, 1988).

Parents can help children with reading by letting their children see them read. It does not matter what parents read—newspapers, magazines, work-related material, or novels—the message a child gets when she or he sees a parent read is that reading is important. Because children want to be like their parents, they too want to read (Smith, 1988).

Children need books which they can read and share with their parents. Sometimes young children pretend to read books and make up stories from the pictures. They should be praised and encouraged to "read" more stories. When a parent and child read a story together and the child cannot say a word, it is best for the parent to just say the word for the child. Parent-child reading should be fun and stress-free.

Television can provide enjoyment and learning; however, parents should supervise. Programs should be carefully selected. Parents and children can discuss the programs afterward with parents asking questions that require the child to think.

Parents can make learning to read easy and fun. They can help their child and the teacher by doing the activities suggested.

STUDYING

Planning for Study

When parents help children study, it is important to remember (a) that it is the child's homework, not the parents', (b) that homework should not be left to the last minute, (c) that the hardest homework should be done first before the child is tired and time has run out, (d) that expectations about the child and the work should be realistic, and (e) that patience of both child and parent is a must (Canter & Hausner, 1987; Radenich & Schumm, 1988).

Planning a Study Area

Children need a quiet place to study so they can concentrate. They may study at the kitchen table or a corner of their bedroom, but it needs to be a quiet area with no radio or television. Parent and child may decide on this area together. Good lighting is important so that the child does not have to strain to see when reading or writing.

The study area should have the materials the child needs for doing assignments. This will prevent interruptions when studying. Materials needed for study may vary but some basic materials would include lined and unlined paper, pencils, pencil sharpener, pens, colored pencils/crayons, glue/paste, scissors, stapler, paper clips, index cards, and a dictionary. Other supplies may be needed for special projects or requested by the teacher.

Planning a Study Schedule

Accurately completing homework and studying for tests are important parts of the learning process. Studying must have a definite place in a child's daily schedule. Homework cannot be viewed as something to be done when all other activities are complete or when it is too late to play outside. It must be a part of the daily schedule like eating a meal or going to bed. Parent and child can decide upon this daily time in advance. The time set aside may range from 15 minutes for a young child to two or more hours for high school students. It should be understood that during this time there will be no radio, television or interruptions. Parents or other adults should be near to provide assistance or encouragement (Canter & Hausner, 1987).

Children should write down assignments as the teacher makes them. They may write in a special place in a notebook or on an assignment sheet. The important thing is that the daily and long

term projects be written down and available when the student sits down to study (Canter & Hausner, 1987).

Parents can assist with homework by clearing up confusion with directions, looking over homework as it is finalized, and asking questions about the completed assignment. It is important for parents to praise good work and effort (Canter & Hausner, 1987).

Planning for Tests

If a child studies daily she or he has a head start on preparing for a test. Additional helps at test time include

1. Finding out exactly what material is to be covered on the test. This means asking the teacher what textbook chapters, homework assignments, or class notes should be studied. Important also is asking what kind of questions will be on the test such as essay, multiple choice, or true/false. This information should be written down and available when studying (Canter & Hausner, 1987).

2. Organizing the material to be covered on the test so that it is together when study time arrives. If any assignments have been missed they need to be completed prior to test studying.

3. Planning study time carefully so that there is enough time to prepare for the test.

4. Reviewing homework and class notes, past quizzes/tests, and notes made during daily studying. When reviewing, the student may underline/highlight important points. Critical information may be summarized in the student's own words and written on index cards which can be easily reviewed while studying. Parents can quiz periodically while the student studies, using the index cards as a basis for questions.

Studying Textbook Information

As a child learns to read she or he is gradually expected to do more reading and learning on her or his own. Therefore, learning how to study a textbook is an important part of being a good student. The steps in the SQ3R study technique (Robinson, 1961) are included for use by parents and children.

1. Survey the chapter: Look over the headings of each section reading the dark print; look over all the pictures, maps, and graphs and read the summary at the end of the chapter.

2. Question: Start at the beginning of the assignment and turn the chapter heading into a question. The answers to the question will be found by reading the text under the heading, so after asking the question....

3. Read: Read to answer the question asked. This process should

continue throughout the chapter with the reader turning headings into questions and reading to answer the questions.

4. Recite and Write: After reading to answer the question, go over the answer "in your head" or talk out loud actually answering the question. Write the question and its answer in a notebook or on index cards to come back and study later.

5. Review: After completing the assignment, go back through the chapter looking at each question posed by the headings and reviewing the answers to the questions or going over the note cards made while reading the chapter.

There is much repetition in this study technique, so if used on a daily basis, it is a good foundation and preparation for class and future tests.

CLOSURE

Parental support and encouragement through the activities suggested in this paper should produce good students. The children will be proud of their accomplishments and will have a feeling of satisfaction about their studies and themselves. They will also have proud parents who are their partners in learning.

REFERENCES

Anderson, R., Hiebert E., Scott, J., & Wilkinson, I. (1985). *Becoming a nation of readers.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

Canter, L., & Hausner, L. (1987). *Homework without tears.* New York: Harper and Row.

Rasinski, T., & Fredericks, A. (1988). Sharing literacy: Guiding principles and practices for parental involvement. *The Reading Teacher, 41,* 509–512.

Radenich, M., & Schumm, J. S. (1988). *How to help your child with homework.* Minneapolis: Free Spirit Publishing.

Robinson, F. (1961). *Effective study.* New York: Harper and Row.

Schumm, J., & Gordon, J. S. (1989, October). *Empowering parents to win the homework wars.* Paper presented at the Florida Reading Association Conference, Ft. Lauderdale, FL.

Simmons, B., & Lawrence, P. S. (1981). Beginning reading: Welcome parents. *Childhood Education, 57,* 156–160.

Smith, C. B. (1988). The expanding role of parents. *The Reading Teacher, 42,* 68–69.

United States Department of Education. (1986). *What works.* Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.

KNOWING ABOUT LITERACY INSTRUCTION

Case-Based Instruction and Learning: An Interdisciplinary Project

MARINO C. ALVAREZ
Tennessee State University
ELIZABETH BINKLEY
JUDY BIVENS
PATRICIA HIGHERS
CYNTHIA POOLE
PATRICIA WALKER
Gallatin High School

Secondary teachers are becoming aware of the need for students to learn facts and ideas in a more relevant and meaningful context than through rote memorization. This entails achieving meaning through social interactions between the teacher and the learner that stress resolving misconceptions through negotiation (Gowin, 1987; McDermott, 1977; Novak & Gowin, 1984). McDermott (1977) refers to these shared experiences as "trusting relations" that are necessary to achieve learning. It also involves incorporating knowledge from other subject areas as it relates to an area of study as well as establishing cooperative relationships among other faculty within the school and members of the community (Alvarez, 1981, 1989).

Too often content teachers treat their subject areas as discrete and separate entities with minimal efforts directed toward incorporating subject matter from other related disciplines into their teaching. In such instances, many students find learning experiences artificial because the information presented lacks a situational context for students to link new ideas to existing knowledge. School experiences that emphasize facts and ideas in a manner unrelated to the students' life and community (Donham, 1949; Eylon & Linn, 1988) tend to be learned as compartmentalized units to be later accessed in a specific subject area by way of either question answering or examination (Potts, St. John, & Kirson, 1989). This results in students mistakenly believing

The authors recognize Paula Wakefield for her contributions to this project, and the other administrative and faculty members of GHS for their cooperation and participation.

that success in school is equated with "knowing" a given body of knowledge of a subject rather than "learning" how this new knowledge can be related to their experiences and other subject disciplines both in and out of school.

Instruction that encourages critical thinking about what one has read can lead to incorporated knowledge that can be retrieved and applied to other related settings. Incorporation of ideas is achieved by assembling different knowledge sources in memory (see Spiro, Vispoel, Schmitz, Samarapungavan, & Boerger, 1987). The role of knowledge activation and the way one modifies or constructs schema with new information are important considerations in this process (Alvarez & Risko, 1989a, 1989b).

KNOWLEDGE ACTIVATION AND SCHEMA CONSTRUCTION

Prereading strategies have been developed to help students relate new information appearing in written discourse to their existing knowledge. The design of many of these preorganizers reflects Ausubel's (1959) definition of readiness, and the purpose of their use is to create a mind set prior to reading. These preorganizers have included advance organizers (Ausubel, 1960, 1968; Mayer, 1987), structured overviews or graphic organizers (Alvermann, 1981; Earle & Barron, 1973), previews (Graves, Cook, & Laberge, 1983), concept maps (Novak & Gowin, 1984), and thematic organizers (Alvarez, 1980, 1983; Alvarez & Risko, 1989a; Risko & Alvarez, 1986). Yet there is much evidence that good and poor readers do not use schemata appropriately or are unaware of whether the information they are reading is consistent with their existing knowledge (e.g., Bartlett, 1932; Bransford, 1979, Whitehead, 1929).

Although schema theory explains how prior knowledge with a topic can be activated, it does not explain how schema is constructed. As Bransford (1985) points out, schema activation and schema construction are two different problems. Although it is possible to activate existing schemata with a given topic, it does not necessarily follow that a learner can use this activated knowledge to develop new knowledge and skills. Students are often subjected to course-specific information in the form of lectures and handouts with little emphasis on how they perceive its use in other subject areas. They try to make sense of this material, but if it cannot be related to prior knowledge or experience, their efforts are directed to memorizing and compartmentalizing this information.

Learning novel concepts requires the learner to connect new information to a congruent mental model. Mental models represent a person's construal of existing knowledge and/or of new information even though this information may be fragmentary, inaccurate, or inconsistent (Gentner & Gentner, 1983). A person's mental model is a representation of a particular belief based on existing knowledge of a physical system or a semantic representation depicted in a text. Holt (1969, 1989) states that models change when we explore the world around us and create knowledge out of our own questions, thoughts, and experiences. In essence, a mental model comprises our

organization of world knowledge and experience and represents our structure of reality (Alvarez, 1990a). Problem-solving lessons and activities can provide learners with situations that aid in schema construction, which includes critical thinking.

Critical thinking theory provides an explanation for activating existing schemata and for constructing new ones (Norris & Phillips, 1987; Siegel, 1988). Critical thinking provides the learner with a strategy (Siegler & Jenkins, 1989) for achieving understanding and can be accomplished by contrasting ideas and engaging in reflective thinking (Dewey, 1933). A reader can weigh alternative interpretations, dismiss others, make a decision to evaluate multiple possibilities, or accept information as being reasonable. This process helps learners to modify or extend their mental model, or existing knowledge base, for target concepts.

CASE-BASED LEARNING

Case-based learning is one method that can be used to foster critical thinking and schema construction. Learning through cases has long been used with graduate business, law, and medical students. Such instruction is predicated on mutual respect for ideas brought about through communication and negotiation of ideas between and among the teacher and students (Andrews, 1953; Christensen, 1987; Dewing, 1954; Gragg, 1940; Towl, 1969). The case method of teaching and learning provides a forum during which students can develop their own framework to reason and think about problems and situations related to an area of study (Hunt, 1951). Cases that revolve around defined topics and that allow for multidisciplinary study can lead to better comprehension and knowledge transfer — the application of preexisting knowledge to new situations (Spiro et al., 1987).

Cases that present learners with single and varied contexts across disciplines provide learners with scenarios that can be discussed and analyzed from multiple perspectives (e.g., Christensen, 1987; Eldridge, 1990; Hunt, 1951; Spiro et al., 1987). These cases can include written documents, recorded (musical as well as narrative) interludes, paintings, artifacts, video portrayals, and other pertinent substances and materials.

A case is a narrative discourse of an event that presents the reader with a problem-oriented task that requires critical and imaginative thought. It is a connecting link between the teacher's conceptual scheme and the educative event. A case stimulates class discussion, provides a means for instruction, and facilitates sharing and negotiating meaning. A primary purpose of cases is to relate educative events to "real-life" situations both in and out of school. The case-based method of instruction is interdisciplinary in nature since problem situations arise from a thematic concept that includes other subject areas. Cases contain authentic problems and genuine questions; they raise issues in enough detail for learners to suggest possible solutions or outcomes.

THE GALLATIN HIGH SCHOOL INTERDISCIPLINARY PROJECT

Gallatin High School is located in a rural community where industry and agriculture (i.e., dairy and tobacco farming) are the primary sources of revenue. A needs assessment conducted by the principal and faculty of this high school identified a recommendation to improve students' critical thinking and writing skills. An overview of case-based instruction and observations relevant to this initial six-week interdisciplinary project with ninth grade students are reported to describe how case-based instruction can be implemented and used to foster knowledge activation and schema construction.

The context of the literature unit, *To Kill a Mockingbird* (Lee, 1960), served as the anchor on which the cases were written. A flyer was devised by the English teachers and librarians and was circulated to faculty members and to the local newspaper that invited items to be included as part of the case information (see Table 1). After receiving a variety of items, students sorted them according to style and format: journalistic-historical narratives, documents, research data, interpretive essay, oral statements, story, vignette, and text (Newmann & Oliver, 1967). Students added four additional categories: oral history (videotapes of invited speakers from the community), visuals and illustrations, propaganda, and recordings.

Cases were developed to help students reason about multiple major concepts expressed in the novel and to apply these concepts to other contexts and subject areas. Each case (1) identified a major text concept (e.g., a jury of peers) that was examined within the context of the narrative and (2) contained a problem situation that required students to analyze the concept according to a different perspective or within a different situation (e.g., the analysis of a peer jury's verdict in a more recent court case to decide whether the verdict compromised the role and function of the court). Each case required students to apply information to authentic problem situations, to think critically, and to obtain plausible and defensible resolutions.

The cases used in this project differed from whole class deliberations and discussion of the same concept. Students individually selected one case from an array of cases that appealed to their interests. Each case was unique because different reading, research, and writing skills were needed to problem solve and complete its task. For example, some cases asked students to keep a written journal of their thoughts in working out the case problem, list sources consulted and materials referenced, make hierarchical concept maps as their case progressed, and then write a report containing illustrations, maps, mathematical principles and examples to support their position. Other cases required students to present a portion of their findings in a videotape. This required them to write and act out the script for the videotape that they produced and edited. These cases allowed students to bridge the gap of the happenings in the 1930s by comparing and contrasting these events to the present. All students were required to write a final report of

their findings. Students' performance was evaluated on their ability to analyze various positions, take a stance, and justify it rationally.

Students engaged in group and class discussions as they studied their respective cases. Those who had selected the same case formed groups,

TABLE 1
Flyer Requesting Items for the Project

Attention History Buffs

Gallatin Senior High School is compiling a case of information on the decade of the 1930s to be used in the classroom. Any of the items listed, plus new ideas for interesting items, are welcome. If you are interested in donating or loaning any memorabilia, or in giving your time as a speaker, please contact Judy Bivens or Cynthia Poole in the library.

1. Music—vocal, instrumental, dances, famous artists of the age, speakeasies, recordings, appropriate movies.
2. Architecture — styles, buildings in Gallatin still standing that were built during 1929–1939, photographs of buildings of the era, etc.
3. History — world affairs, state government, local events, politics, major happenings.
4. Photographs — 1929–1939.
5. Artifacts — clothing, tools, radios, phonographs, letters, etc.
6. Publications — newspapers, magazines, advertising.
7. Art — information about major movements, artists, examples of period pieces, photographs of works, impact of the Depression on the art world.
8. Automobiles — photographs of cars of the 1930s, restored examples, information about production, state of technology, etc.
9. Colloquialisms — expressions common to the age (things your mother and grandmother used to say that your children think are "out of it").
10. Politics — world, Tennessee, local.
11. Technological advances — What was happening in science? the space program? What was invented, improved, changed? What "modern" conveniences were available?
12. Entertainment — radio, fairs, films, cartoons, books, dolls, toys, etc.
13. Transportation — what were the major forms? How can these be compared to current forms? pictures of trains, ticket stubs, etc.
14. Sports — What did our country play? Who were the stars? What was the prevailing attitude toward sports? photos of sports happenings in the world, country, our community; examples of equipment, baseball cards, etc.
15. Fashions — what did we wear? (photos especially helpful), magazines from the period that portray fashions, examples, etc.
16. Military Paraphernalia — any examples from the time, war stories of local interest, photos, etc.
17. Famous persons — Who was well known? Ex. Bonnie and Clyde/Shirley Temple.

consulted with each other as they gathered information, and discussed their approaches and resources. Class discussions of the novel gave students the opportunity to share what they were investigating in relation to the structural elements (i.e., setting, plot, characters, theme) of the novel. These discussions raised questions that encouraged students to seek additional information in reaching a resolution to their case of inquiry.

Faculty members from other subject areas served as resource persons for students. Some teachers included the historical context and themes of the novel into their subject area. For example, the art teacher discussed the artists and their paintings of the 1930s. The geometry teacher photocopied a painting of Picasso's *Guernica* (1937) for her ninth grade students and devised mathematical problems that could be discerned from the painting. The librarians taught library/research skills, gathered research materials, coordinated interdisciplinary studies (e.g., communicating with all teachers concerning materials available, working with interested teachers concerning interdisciplinary units), and archived materials (e.g., videotapes of teachers and students collaborating using concept maps, thematic organizers, etc.; oral histories of invited community members; artifacts—paintings, letters, pictures). Archives were housed in the library for faculty, students, and interested personnel to review. Thus, librarians were resource partners in the learning process rather than solely materials providers (Waddle, 1988).

This interdisciplinary case project engaged students more directly in their learning and provided a forum for them to take an active role in structuring their own meaning. Self-selected cases served to activate and expand their knowledge through the use of thematically organized and cross-disciplinary cases and facilitated students' ability to generate plausible and meaningful explanations for new information. Students had opportunities to demonstrate the variety of abilities and interests they possessed by revealing in-school as well as out-of-school knowledge. They were most articulate when confronted with meaningful tasks that required thinking and active participation in situations that (1) incorporated knowledge from other disciplines and contexts, (2) were relevant to the experiences of their community, and (3) allowed them to formulate and pursue their own related interests, thereby creating their own learning contexts.

The teacher and her students became active participants in the learning process by creating an environment that was mutually adaptable rather than arbitrary and teacher dominated. Genuine questions were raised without preconceived answers. These kinds of questions were asked by both the teacher and students not to test but to obtain information or clarify ambiguities. Concepts identified in the novel were used to construct questions about pertinent ideas within other related contexts that included their personal lives and community. Self-selected cases allowed students to proceed on their own individual paths, reduced their chances of failure, and allowed them to develop their own personal time schedules driven by curiosity and interest.

Equally important was that teachers began and ended this interdisciplinary project with invested interest and ownership. Teachers evaluated the instructional techniques and methods in relation to student academic performance. An empirical data base was established and the analyses were related to the needs assessment of the school (e.g., Alvarez, 1990b).

CONCLUSION

If we expect critical thinking to take place, we need to provide students with problem-solving lessons in meaningful learning contexts. New information is linked to existing concepts and, when learned, becomes incorporated (integrated and related to other knowledge sources in memory) rather than compartmentalized (isolated due to rote memorization). This notion is consistent with Ausubel's (1968) theory of learning, Gowin's (1987) theory of educating, and Gragg's (1940) warning that "wisdom can't be told."

For schema construction to occur, a framework needs to be provided to help readers elaborate on new facts and ideas and to clarify their significance or relevance. Students need to learn more about themselves as learners. Notable in this learning context is the relationship between facts and ideas learned in formal school settings and those encountered in everyday learning environments.

As educators, we need to provide the spark that ignites students and invites them to seek and create new knowledge. For us to do so, we need to make new learning meaningful. We need to give students time to digest facts and ideas, to be reflective and imaginative thinkers, and to relate this new knowledge to their experiences and other disciplines. By so doing, students can be taught to become self-empowered (a notion that one can cause his or her own learning while trusting others) in the learning process.

Authentic cases seem to spur curiosity and invite students to initiate critical thinking. Case-based instruction and learning provide students with a forum by which to take an active role in structuring and creating their own meaning.

REFERENCES

Alvarez, M.C. (1990a). Preschoolers emerging mental models with literacy. In B.L. Hayes & K. Camperell (Eds.), *American Reading Forum: Vol. 10. Achieving excellence in reading* (pp. 87–96).

Alvarez, M.C. (1990b). *Knowledge activation and schema construction.* Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, Boston. ERIC Document ED 317 988

Alvarez, M.C. (1989). A cooperative school reading plan: Developing collaborative relationships. In B. Hayes & K. Camperell (Eds.), *American Reading Forum: Vol. 9. Reading researchers, policymakers, and practitioners* (pp. 49–54).

Alvarez, M.C. (1983). Using a thematic pre-organizer and guided instruction as an aid to concept learning. *Reading Horizons, 24,* 51–58.

Alvarez, M.C. (1981). A cooperative reading plan starts from within, involves the entire school. *NASSP Bulletin, 65,* 67–74.

Alvarez, M.C. (1980). The effect of using an associate passage with guided instruction to evoke thematic conceptual linkage. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 41,* 1000A. (University Microfilms No. 8019163).

Alvarez, M.C., & Risko, V.J. (1989a). Using a thematic organizer to facilitate transfer learning with college developmental studies students. *Reading Research and Instruction, 28,* 1–15.

Alvarez, M.C., & Risko, V.J. (November, 1989b). Schema activation, construction, and application. *ERIC Digest, Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills.* Bloomington, IN: Indiana University.

Alvermann, D.E. (1981). The compensatory effect of graphic organizers in the learning and retention of meaningful verbal material. *Journal of Educational Research, 75,* 44–48.

Andrews, K.R. (1953). *The case method of teaching human relations and administrations.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Ausubel, D.P. (1968). *Educational psychology: A cognitive view.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Ausubel, D.P. (1960). The use of advance organizers in the learning and retention of meaningful verbal material. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 51,* 267–272.

Ausubel, D.P. (1959). Viewpoints from related disciplines: Human growth and development. *Teachers College Record, 60,* 245–254.

Bartlett, F.C. (1932). *Remembering: A study in experimental and social psychology.* London: Cambridge University Press.

Bransford, J.D. (1985). Schema activation and schema acquisition. In H. Singer & R.B. Ruddell (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (3rd ed.) (pp. 385–397). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Bransford, J.D. (1979). *Human cognition: Learning, understanding and remembering.* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Christensen, C.R. (1987). *Teaching and the case method.* Boston: Harvard Business School.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think.* Boston: D.C. Heath.

Dewing, A.S. (1954). An introduction to the use of cases. In M.P. McNair (Ed.), *The case method at the Harvard Business School* (pp. 1–5). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Donham, W.B. (1949). Why experiment? The case system in college teaching of science. *Journal of General Education, 3,* 145–156.

Earle, R.A., & Barron, R.F. (1973). An approach for teaching vocabulary in

content subjects. In H.L. Herber & P.L. Sanders (Eds.), *Research in reading in the content areas: Second year report* (pp. 84-100). Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University Reading and Language Arts Center.

Eldridge, R.G. (1990). Developing case-studies to prepare reading educators. In B.L. Hayes & K. Camperell (Eds.), *American Reading Forum, Vol. 10. Achieving excellence in reading* (pp. 143–149).

Eylon, B., & Linn, M.C. (1988). Learning and instruction: An examination of four research perspectives in science education. *Review of Educational Research, 58,* 251–301.

Gentner, D., & Gentner, D.R. (1983). Flowing waters or teeming crowds: Mental models of electricity. In D. Gentner & A.L. Stevens (Eds.), *Mental models* (pp. 99–129), Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Gowin, D.B. (1987). *Educating.* Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

Gragg, C.I. (1940). Because wisdom can't be told. *Harvard Alumni Bulletin, 43,* 78–84.

Graves, M.F., Cook, C.L., & Laberge, M.J. (1983). Effects of previewing difficult short stories on low ability junior high school students' comprehension, recall, and attitudes. *Reading Research Quarterly, 18,* 262–276.

Holt, J. (1989). *Learning all the time.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Holt, J. (1969). *The underachieving school.* New York: Pitman.

Hunt, P. (1951). The case method of instruction. *Harvard Educational Review, 21,* 3, 175–192.

Lee, H. (1960). *To kill a mockingbird.* New York: Warner Books Inc.

Mayer, R.E. (1987). Instructional variables that influence cognitive processes during reading. In B.K. Britton & S.M. Glynn (Eds.), *Executive control processes in reading* (pp. 201–216). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

McDermott, R.P. (1977). Social relations as contexts for learning in school. *Harvard Educational Review, 47,* 198–213.

Newmann, F.M., & Oliver, D.W. (1967). Case study approaches to social studies. *Social Education, 31,* 108–113.

Norris, S.P., & Phillips, L.M. (1987). Explanations of reading comprehension: Schema theory and critical thinking theory. *Teachers College Record, 89,* 281–306.

Novak, J.D., & Gowin, D.B. (1984). *Learning how to learn.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Potts, G.R., St. John, M.F., & Kirson, D. (1989). Incorporating new information into existing world knowledge. *Cognitive Psychology, 21,* 303–333.

Risko, V.J., & Alvarez, M.C. (1986). An investigation of poor readers' use of a thematic strategy to comprehend text. *Reading Research Quarterly, 21,* 298–316.

Siegel, H. (1988). *Educating reason: Rationality, critical thinking and education.* New York: Routledge.

Siegler, R.S., & Jenkins, E. (1989). *How children discover new strategies*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Spiro, R.J., Vispoel, W.L., Schmitz, J.G., Samarapungavan, A., & Boerger, A.E. (1987). Knowledge acquisition for application: Cognitive flexibility and transfer in complex content domains. In B.K. Britton & S.M. Glynn (Eds.), *Executive control processes in reading* (pp. 177–199). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Towl, A.R. (1969). *To study administration by cases*. Boston: Harvard University Graduate School of Business Administration.

Waddle, L. (1988). School media matters. *Wilson Library Bulletin*, December, 78–79.

Whitehead, A.N. (1929). *The aims of education and other essays*. New York: The Free Press.

Reading Perceptions of Urban Second Graders

ELIZABETH G. STURTEVANT
Kent State University
WAYNE LINEK
John Carroll University
NANCY PADAK
TIMOTHY RASINSKI
Kent State University

When young children first enter school, do they know what reading is and why people read? Some studies have found that young children and poor readers tend to view reading as a process of saying words rather than as a means of communication (Baker & Brown, 1984). The most basic metacognitive knowledge would seem to be knowledge about why people read. Children who focus on meaning when they read may comprehend better than children who focus on naming words.

Previous studies about children's perceptions of reading have focused on the influence of age, ability, or instructional program on readers' perceptions. Weintraub and Denny (1965) found that first graders come to school with widely disparate views about reading. More than one-fourth of their young respondents could not verbalize an "intelligible idea of the reading act." Early research has been criticized for the number of "don't know" responses (Hillerich, 1990). Hillerich recently interviewed first graders to learn how they viewed reading and writing. His interview included a variety of questions, probes, and concrete examples. Only 3 percent of Hillerich's first graders mentioned meaning when asked how they evaluate whether they are reading well. When asked how the teacher knows they are reading well or how they know others are reading well, none of the children mentioned meaning.

Several researchers have explored the impact of ability on children's perceptions of reading. Johns (1974, 1972), for example, found that fourth

graders who were good readers viewed reading as a process of gaining meaning significantly more often than did poor readers. However, Johns also pointed out that more than half of these good readers described reading as a decoding process with no mention of meaning.

Long, Manning, & Manning (1985) also compared the ideas of good and poor readers. These researchers interviewed 68 first graders who were either among the five best or five worst readers in their classes. The high achievers tended to give meaning-related reasons for reading; the low achievers either gave no response or a "school" answer, such as "to go to second grade." Twice as many poor readers as good readers described a good reader as one who could read fast, read hard material, and get all the words right. Over one-third of the poor readers believed that good readers never come to words they don't know. In a four-month observational study of first graders, Bondy (1985) found that able readers perceived reading as more meaningful than did poor readers.

Through an experimental technique combined with interviews, Canney and Winograd (1979) found that older children and better readers focused more on meaning than decoding. They asked the subjects (second, fourth, sixth and eighth graders) if they could read four passages that were intact or disrupted in varying ways (the worst contained strings of random letters). All eighth graders and good sixth grade comprehenders knew that gaining meaning was the main goal of reading. Second and fourth graders and sixth grade poor comprehenders focused on decoding.

Recent studies have investigated whether differences in children's perceptions about reading are related to their instruction. Rasinski and DeFord (1988) found that first grade children's perceptions of literacy were related to the type of their instructional program. Children in an analytical, "mastery-learning" program tended to perceive reading and writing as processes of saying and spelling words correctly. Children in a holistic, literature-based program viewed reading and writing as purposeful and meaningful; children in the traditional, basal program held perceptions somewhat in between.

Book, Putnam, Meloth, & Sivan (1988) taught third grade teachers to provide explicit instruction to help low-level readers conceive of reading as a sense-making process and to use strategies to control their own reading. The students of these teachers developed concepts of reading as a meaning-making activity, but students of other teachers did not. These authors discuss the relationship between children's concepts of reading and the use of metacognitive strategies. They emphasize that children who view reading as a meaningful process are more likely to use strategies to eliminate comprehension blocks than are children who focus on decoding.

Taken as a whole, these studies tend to show that many primary grade children and older poor readers focus on decoding rather than on the meaning-making aspects of reading. Two studies have also shown that this focus may be related to instruction. However, many questions remain unan-

swered or require testing with different populations. Especially needed are descriptions of the ways children in different settings perceive reading and additional information on how perceptions and achievement are related.

The broad purpose of this study was to describe the reading perceptions of 78 second graders in a midwestern urban area. The children all participated in a traditional basal-dominated reading program. Two questions provided a focus for the study: How do second grade urban children perceive reading and themselves as readers? Are the children's perceptions of reading related to their levels of reading achievement?

METHOD

Subjects

The children, from five classes at two urban schools, were individually interviewed in October of their second grade year. The schools were in the same school district and qualified for Chapter I funding. The interview questions (see Table 1) were adapted by Padak and Pryor (1988) from Burke (1980) and Wixson, Bosky, Yochum, & Alvermann (1984). The four interviewers were either reading professors or doctoral students majoring in reading. The children were also given the comprehension portion of the Gates-McGinitie Reading Test.

Data Analysis

The children's answers were analyzed in two ways. First, each child's answers were rated as a whole and given a perceptions "score" between 1 and 5. These ratings were then compared with Gates-McGinitie comprehension scores using Pearson correlation coefficients and t-tests. Later, the children's answers to the questions were categorized and described.

TABLE 1
Interview Questions

1. Do you like to read? Why?
2. Who's the best reader you know? (Probe for a peer.) What makes him/her such a good reader?
3. Do you know someone who can't read? How would you explain reading to that child? What would you tell him/her that reading is all about?
4. What does your teacher do to help you learn to read better?
5. What do you do when you come to a word that you don't know? How do you figure it out? What do you do if that doesn't work?
6. What do you do if you don't understand what you read? What do you do to try to figure it out? What do you do if that doesn't work?
7. What's the best way to become a better reader?
8. Do you think you're a good reader? Why?

For the first analysis, a rating scale of 1–5 was developed (see Table 2). Two of the original interviewers discussed in detail the types of answers that would be given each rating. Each then independently rated each child's interview. Ratings were the same for 89.7 percent of the interviews. The remaining eight interviews were sent to a third interviewer for rating. If this rating matched one of the original ratings, that rating was used. In only one case was a child's interview rated differently by all three raters. This interview was not used.

TABLE 2
Perceptions of Reading Rating Scale

	Percent of total
1 = no answer was related to meaning	6.5
2 = most answers not related to meaning	28.6
3 = answers evenly divided between meaning and decoding	33.8
4 = most answers related to meaning	27.3
5 = all answers related to meaning	3.9

RESULTS

The second graders in this study held widely varying perceptions of reading. There was, however, no relationship between their reading perception scores and their reading comprehension scores. Perception scores were compared to comprehension scores for the total group ($r=-.1287$; $p>.05$) and separately for boys ($r=-.1951$; $p>.05$) and girls ($r=-.0158$; $p>.05$). We also compared the comprehension scores of all children who had perception scores of 1 and 2 with those who had perception scores of 4 and 5 (see Table 3). Finally, we compared the perception scores of the 10 children with the highest (average perception score 3.0) and the 10 with the lowest (average perception score 3.1) comprehension scores. Although children with more meaningful perceptions tended to have higher comprehension scores, none of the tested relationships was statistically significant.

In general, the qualitative analysis supported the previous conclusion that the children held widely disparate views of reading and of themselves as readers. We also found (as did Hillerich, 1990) that different questions tended to elicit different types of responses. For example, when asked how they know someone else is a good reader, 45 percent of these second grade children focused on reading as an oral performance including "getting words right." Almost half also said they would tell a nonreader that reading involved knowing words and "sounding out." However, the majority of the children also said that they "like reading," because it is "fun," because they can read specific materials, or because they "learn" from reading. When asked how their teacher helps them read better, almost the same number said that the teacher "reads to us" or "gives us books to read" (43 percent)

TABLE 3
Reading Comprehension Comparison of Students Receiving Perception Scores of 1 and 2 with Those Receiving 4 and 5

Perception Score	N	Mean Comprehension
1 and 2	27	392.63 (ESS); grade equivalent 1.8
4 and 5	23	372.91 (ESS); grade equivalent 1.6

$t = 1.32$; $p > .05$,

as said that the teacher helps them with words or sounds (42 percent). The greatest proportion also believed that the way to become a better reader was to read books and "practice."

The answers to the question "Are you a good reader?" were analyzed separately because this question relates to a child's perceptions of his or her own reading ability rather than to perceptions of the reading process. Most of the second graders (77 percent) answered in the affirmative, explaining that they can "read books" (30 percent). A smaller percentage of these children (13 percent) mentioned their ability to "read hard words."

Twenty-three percent of the children did not think of themselves as good readers, however. Many of these children said they had trouble pronouncing or "sounding out" words. Others mentioned lack of speed, too much speed, wanting to do other things, and so on. None of the children who thought they were less able readers mentioned problems with comprehension.

In a further analysis, we divided this group into two parts: those who were sure they were poor readers and those who said they "didn't know." Although the 7 children who were sure they were not good readers had lower reading comprehension scores than the average, the 11 children who said they "didn't know" if they were good readers were not significantly lower in reading comprehension than the children who thought they were good readers.

This group as a whole (those who said either they were not good readers or were not sure) had significantly lower perception scores than the rest of the second graders ($t = -2.18$, $p < .05$). There may be a relationship between the criteria children use to "judge" reading as good or poor, their negative judgements about themselves as readers, and their perceptions of the reading process.

DISCUSSION

This study confirmed earlier findings (Weintraub & Denny, 1965; Hillerich, 1990) that primary grade children have widely disparate views of the reading process. It did not, however, confirm the work of Johns (1974, 1972), Long et. al (1985), and Bondy (1985), who reported that higher achievers have

more meaningful perceptions of reading than low achievers. In our study, children's achievement levels were not related to their perceptions of reading. It is difficult to know why our findings did not confirm this previous work. The children in our sample were a different grade level (second) and from a different background (urban poor and working class) than children in the studies reviewed. The questions asked were more comprehensive than those asked in three studies (Weintraub & Denny, 1965; Johns, 1974, 1972) but were similar to those asked by Hillerich (1990) and Long et al. (1985). Also, group achievement test scores for young children must always be interpreted with caution.

The qualitative analysis of the children's answers to the interview questions provided insights into important questions about children's perceptions of reading. As explained previously, different interview questions appeared to elicit different responses from the group as a whole. When asked to be "reading judges" ("what makes ____ such a good reader"), the children usually focused on oral performance. When asked about reading enjoyment, they tended to focus on meaning. Questions about instruction brought out responses reflective of their own traditional basal instruction, a split in emphasis between decoding and meaning.

The group picture, however, masks the fact that individual children exhibited their own patterns. Some children were definitely focused on reading as a process of gaining meaning while others were as strongly focused on reading as an oral performance. The majority, however, had more balanced views (see Table 2).

One group surfaced for particular attention during the qualitative analysis: the children who see themselves as poor readers or think they may be poor readers. Many of these children did not achieve lower comprehension scores than the total group, but their interview answers showed a definite tendency to view reading as an oral performance — decoding, naming words, "not messing up." They judged themselves very sternly in this area. Contrast this with the majority of children who were sure they were good readers because they could "read books." Children who think of themselves as poor readers are a group that deserves further study.

Many young children seem to believe that people read to "get the words right" and that reading is good when it "sounds good." Children need to know what readers know — that people read for learning, for pleasure, for communication — not to be judged on accuracy. Subtle messages children receive from their teachers, parents, peers, and instructional programs may affect their perceptions in ways that are not yet fully understood.

Researchers and teachers need to work together to learn how children's perceptions of reading, their perceptions of themselves as readers, their self-concepts, and their achievement are interrelated and change over time. Although this study has provided possible answers to a few questions, many yet remain to be explored.

REFERENCES

Baker, L., & Brown, A. (1984). Metacognitive skills and reading. In P.D. Pearson (Ed.), *Handbook of Reading Research* (pp. 353–394). New York: Longman.

Bondy, E. (1985, April). *Children's definitions of reading: Products of an interactive process.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago.

Book, C., Putnam, J., Meloth, M., & Sivan, E. (1988). *Teachers' concepts of reading, reading concepts communicated during instruction, and students' concepts of reading.* (Research Series No. 190). East Lansing, MI.: The Institute for Research on Teaching. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 296 276)

Burke, C.L. (1980). The reading interview. In B. Farr & D. Strickler (Eds.), *Reading comprehension handbook.* Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Language Education Department.

Canney, G., & Winograd, P. (1979). *Schemata for reading and reading comprehension performance.* (Technical Report No. 120). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois, Center for the Study of Reading. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 169 520)

Hillerich, R. (1990). First graders' perceptions of reading and writing. *Illinois Reading Council Journal, 18* (2), 12–18.

Johns, J. (1974). Concepts of reading among good and poor readers. *Education, 95* (1), 58–60.

Johns, J. (1972). Children's concepts of reading and their reading achievement. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 4* (4), 56–57.

Long, R., Manning, M., & Manning, G. (1985, November). *High and low achieving first-grade readers' perceptions of the reading process.* Paper presented at the Mid-South Educational Research Association, Biloxi, MS. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 266–429)

Padak, N., & Pryor, E. (1988, April). *First graders' perceptions of themselves as authors.* Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans.

Rasinski, T., & DeFord, D. (1988). First graders' conceptions of literacy: A matter of schooling. *Theory into Practice, 27* (1), 53–61.

Weintraub, S., & Denny, T. (1965). What do beginning readers say about reading? *Childhood Education, 41* (6), 326–327.

Wixson, K. K., Bosky, A. B., Yochum, M. N., & Alvermann, D. E. (1984). An interview for assessing students' perceptions of classroom reading tasks. *The Reading Teacher, 37,* 346–352.

Join the Club! A New Approach to the Traditional Reading Clinic

Rebecca F. Carwile
Karen L. Parker
Liberty University

"There is little doubt that children who have suffered with reading disability over any sustained period of time are going to have serious questions about themselves and their abilities" (Abrams, 1983, p. 478). A wealth of research exists to corroborate Abrams' statement. However, McMillan and Gentile (1983, p. 484) conclude that unless the body of knowledge is organized and interpreted, future "investigators will continue to generate repetitive research that leads to more 'cataloging' of children's emotional and reading difficulties but fails to provide applicable solutions." The traditional clinical approach to reading remediation may exacerbate the accompanying emotional problems.

Quandt and Selznick (1984) describe three "counteractions" or defense mechanisms that students who are experiencing reading difficulties employ. The disabled readers may deny the importance of reading, hide or disguise their lack of reading ability, or claim that they really did not try to succeed. These mechanisms are known only too well by remedial teachers. Singling out the poor readers for special help in the classroom or reading clinic may serve to reinforce self-doubts. Such students may face taunting from their peers about going to the "dummy class." These social difficulties may contribute to emotional problems that block learning for reading-disabled children (Manzo, 1987).

At Liberty University, a Reading Club approach has been implemented to avoid the stigma that may be associated with receiving special help. Students in grades K–8 from the local schools come to the university campus to be

tutored in reading. Elementary education majors enrolled in the reading diagnosis and remediation course provide one-to-one tutoring. The sessions are referred to as a Reading Club rather than a reading clinic in order to avoid the medical/disabled connotations associated with a clinic. The club theme is carried out with contests and prizes. Each semester a reading contest is conducted to stimulate independent reading. Clubbers are issued a Weekly Reading Record at the first session and are encouraged to read 15 minutes each day in any material of their choice. At the second session, those who return the form with any amount of reading recorded receive a Reading Club membership card and a Reading Club bookmark, button, or pencil. At the last session, the clubber selects prizes based on the total amount of time read throughout the semester.

A Reading Wheel or Reading Puzzle is also given to each clubber at the first session as an incentive to read a variety of materials. At each session, the clubber colors the section(s) on the wheel or puzzle that correspond to the categories read that week (e.g., mystery, biography, poetry). Additional prizes are selected at the end of the semester for reading literature from each designated category.

Each semester there may be additional contests related to the season. March is Reading Month sponsored by the Piedmont Area Reading Council, so in the spring semester clubbers participate in the Reading Club poster contest. The posters are displayed in the Teacher Education building, and prizes are awarded. Parent takehomes are also distributed with tips for encouraging their children to read.

Another aspect of the positive approach employed in the Reading Club is that enrichment is provided for those reading at or above grade level as well as remediation for those reading below grade level. This avoids the stigma of "dummies only." The child who is frustrated by *D*'s and *F*'s on his or her report card does not mind attending Reading Club when a brother who makes all *A*'s is a member too. At the same time, the brother is pleased to be included in the Club because it sounds like fun. All students can benefit from reading instruction. The child who is reading on grade level has specific needs, and the advanced reader should be challenged to full potential (Wilson & Craig, 1989).

THE TUTORING SESSIONS

Although the Reading Club concept is utilized to promote a positive atmosphere, the tutoring sessions are serious business. An informal reading inventory is administered to determine appropriate levels of material for the clubber. The Prescriptive Reading Inventory is the basis for the skill focus of each language/literature-centered session. Modality testing is used to indicate the most effective delivery system.

As the children arrive each week, they are met in the hallway by their tutors, and their weekly reading is recorded in units of half hours on the

incentive chart. Next each child goes with his or her tutor to one of three stations: System 80, computers, or classroom. Each one-hour session is divided into three activities, although the order of the activities may vary. One activity focuses on vocabulary development using such materials as "Vocabulary in Context" on the System 80 machines or "Word Attack!" on the computers. In the classrooms, game activities selected to strengthen an identified skill area comprise another part of the lesson. Each tutor must submit a lesson plan in advance identifying the skill, why it was selected, how it will be introduced, and the game activity used to reinforce the skill. Finally, the skill must be applied in the context of a literature experience.

The Reading Club approach addresses each of the three counteractions described by Quandt and Selznick (1984) while providing direct experiences for the preservice teachers. Children cease to deny the importance of reading as it becomes associated with the excitement generated by the incentives but more importantly by the clubber/tutor relationships. Once children's difficulties are identified, success-driven instruction minimizes or eliminates the deficits and at the same time builds a trust that affords the student the opportunity to reveal additional areas of need. Finally, the clubber is positively encouraged with each evidence of effort so that trying becomes a habit and an element of pride.

RESULTS OF THE READING CLUB

The results of the Reading Club approach are sometimes immediate. An interest inventory is administered in the first session. Clubbers who had indicated a negative attitude toward reading often return their reading record the next week with enthusiasm about what they have read. Each tutor conducts an individual parent conference at the end of the semester. As indicated in the list of parent comments below, parents report more positive reading attitudes, increased attention span and reading time, and improved school performance. Clubbers look forward to attending the Reading Club meeting each week, and tutors enjoy teaching with the positive approach.

One clubber demonstrated particularly strong indicators of emotional disturbance, reverting to infantile speech patterns and expressing a level of hostility toward school that was surprising at such a young age. The child had been considered by his school for special education placement. After one year in the Reading Club, occurrences of infantile speech and hostility decreased, and the child is functioning with peers in the regular classroom. A second clubber, home schooled because of his inability to separate from his adoptive mother in any situation outside the home, became an independent reader who now recommends to his mother that she just "drop him off."

CONCLUSION

Join the club! The Reading Club approach avoids the stigma of receiving special help, meets the needs of readers at all levels, and adds incentives for

TABLE 1
Selected Comments from Parent Survey

Changes in reading attitude	
"increased desire to read"	"more aware of 'need' to read daily"
"more interested in reading"	"more interest in books"
"has grown to love reading"	"seems to enjoy it more"
"attitude has become more positive"	
Changes in reading behavior	
"sitting still to listen to a whole story"	
"reads for longer periods of time"	"picks up a book more"
"more inclined to pick up books to read and finish them!"	
"more independence to read books on own"	
"reads on a regular basis"	"loves to read out loud"
"participates more"	"less timid about reading aloud"
"looks for words she knows ... now she can take part"	
Changes at school	
"assisted progress at school"	"has shown great improvement"
"moved to a higher reading group"	"started to bring home books"
"participates in a voluntary reading incentive program"	
"comprehension has definitely improved"	
"went up two letter grades in reading on report card"	

reading. The approach works because it "tackles the negative self-concept by giving the child success experiences, by praising and documenting progress, and by indicating . . . the child is worthy and capable" (Taylor, Harris & Pearson, 1988, p. 55).

So often poor readers are trapped in a vicious cycle as illustrated in Figure 1. Because they read poorly, they do not read; because they do not read, they do not improve; and because they do not improve, they continue to dislike reading. The goal of the Reading Club is to break this vicious cycle and replace it with the positive cycle of the good reader also illustrated in Figure 1. Because of the incentives and the personal encouragement offered in the Reading Club, the children begin to read; because of the time engaged in reading and personalized reading instruction, they begin to improve; because of their improvement in reading, they learn to enjoy reading. The results are beneficial for children, parents, and tutors. The approach can be used to provide positive remediation in a clinical or classroom situation.

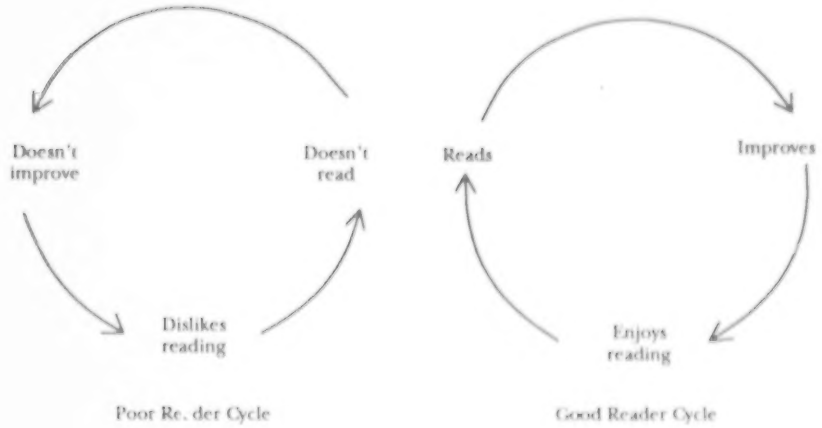


Figure 1.

REFERENCES

Abrams, J. (1983). A critique of E. Gann's study: Reading difficulty and personality organization. In L.M. Gentile & M.L. Kamil (Eds.), *Reading research revisited* (pp. 473–480). Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.

Gentile, L., & McMillan, M. (1987). *Stress and reading difficulties.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Manzo, A.V. (1987). Psychologically induced dyslexia and learning disabilities. *The Reading Teacher, 40,* 408–413.

McMillan, M., & Gentile, L. (1983). A commentary on Abrams' critique of Gann's study: Reading difficulty and personality organization. In L.M. Gentile & M.L. Kamil (Eds.), *Reading research revisited* (pp. 481–485). Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.

Quandt, I., & Selznick, R. (1984). *Self-concept and reading.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Taylor, B., Harris, L., & Pearson, P. (1988). *Reading difficulties: instruction and assessment.* New York: Random House.

Wilson, R.M., & Craig, M. (1989). *Diagnostic and remedial reading for classroom and clinic.* Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.

Second Grade Urban Students' Attitudes Toward Reading

Wayne M. Linek
John Carroll University
Elizabeth G. Sturtevant
Timothy V. Rasinski
Nancy D. Padak
Kent State University

Low reading achievement in urban, multiethnic schools is of grave concern to educators and the general public. Evidence for this concern abounds: government reports, the National Teacher Exam, state legislation, and accountability mandates. Moreover, concern about the affective domain in reading is gaining greater attention among those responsible for school reading programs. This concern is evidenced by interest in questionnaires and attitude surveys that are common components of reading assessments and the motivational activities that have become important parts of lesson plans.

Numerous studies have demonstrated that good readers possess positive attitudes while poor readers have negative attitudes. Although achievement has been correlated with attitude, few studies have assessed whether oral reading performance is related to attitude toward reading. We make the distinction between reading achievement and oral reading performance because the latter can focus on other aspects of the reading process (e.g., oral miscues).

Previous research generally shows that poor readers have a more negative attitude toward reading than good readers (Alexander & Filler, 1976; Lipsky, 1983; Wigfield & Asher, 1984) with correlations ranging from 0.2 to 0.4. However, conflicting evidence on the relationship between attitude toward reading and reading achievement in primary students has been reported. Walberg and Tsai (1985) report a relationship in nine-year-old students, but Swanson (1986) reports no significant correlation between first graders' attitudes toward reading and achievement. Thus, there is little evidence to indicate at what age a child's attitude toward reading becomes related to reading

achievement. Since "attitude is a primary determination of whether students will approach or avoid textbooks" (Vacca & Vacca, 1989, p. 38), the onset of this relationship must be more specifically described so that contributing variables can be identified.

Discrepant results have also been obtained when assessing whether low-SES children actually have less positive attitudes toward school than do children in other SES groups. Coster (1958) and Yee (1968) found a relationship between low-SES children and less positive attitudes toward school while Neale and Proshek (1967) failed to detect such a relationship. Swanson (1983) found that the SES of black first graders influenced their concepts about reading, but not reading attitude.

Younger children generally maintain higher expectancies for future success after experiencing failure than do older children (Parsons & Ruble, 1977) and do not perceive school success as related to ability (Nicholls, 1978, 1979). Until the age of 12 or 13, being able means trying harder if success and failure feedback is unclear (Blumenfeld, Pintrich, Meece, & Wessels, 1982). However, self-concept of ability rapidly declines with age for low-SES children (Eshel & Klein, 1981).

Kibby (1977) found that student status as a reader in a classroom determines attitude more than reading performance. Students with relatively poor reading achievement who were relatively good readers in their classes had significantly more positive attitudes toward reading than students with significantly higher reading achievement who were not relatively good readers in their classes.

Parker and Paradis (1986) found that elementary girls have more positive attitudes toward reading than do elementary boys. The greatest differences in attitude between the sexes occurred in grades 2, 4, and 5. Dwyer and Reed (1989) found similar results among upper elementary students.

Overall, a relationship seems to exist between the affective domain and reading achievement and performance. Variables impacting on reading attitude, achievement, and motivation include sex, age, and environment. The current study described attitudes toward reading, reading achievement, and oral reading performance of urban second graders. It questioned whether there were significant differences in attitudes toward particular aspects of reading. It sought to determine the extent of the relationship between attitude and reading achievement and attitude and oral reading performance. Finally, it asked if there were significant differences in the attitudes of high-achieving readers, low achieving readers, and the sample population.

METHOD

Second grade students were chosen for the study because all students had received at least one year of reading instruction allowing for quantifiable determinations of oral reading performance. Eighty-four students from five classrooms in two urban, public elementary schools participated in the study.

Attitudes toward reading were determined using the *Heathington Primary Reading Attitude Scale* (Heathington, 1976). Mean scores and standard deviations are reported for the following six aspects of reading: (1) free classroom reading, (2) organized classroom reading, (3) reading at library, (4) reading at home, (5) other recreational reading, and (6) total reading.

Reading achievement was assessed using the *Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test*. Means, standard deviations, mean stanines, and mean percentile ranks were determined for extended scale scores (ESS) on the comprehension subtest. To determine if there were significant differences in attitudes of high achieving readers, low achieving readers, and the sample population, an ESS at or below 336 (27th percentile) was considered low and an ESS at or above 442 (70th percentile) was considered high. These scores permitted the use of the top and bottom eleven readers.

Oral reading performance was assessed using informal reading inventory procedures and passages from the *Basic Reading Inventory* (Johns, 1988). Oral reading performance was operationally defined three ways: (1) total oral reading miscues, (2) meaning-changing oral reading miscues, and (3) oral reading rate. Children's performance on the 100-word primer passage was used for all analyses, unless a student could not complete the passage successfully. In these cases, performance on the preprimer passage was used.

Assessments were completed by four reading specialists in October. Informal reading inventories were individually administered followed by group administrations of the *Gates MacGinitie Reading Test* and the *Heathington Primary Reading Attitude Scale*.

RESULTS

Overall, the urban second graders had positive attitudes toward reading (see Table 1). There were no significant differences between genders or among particular aspects of attitude toward reading. However, there was a noticeable trend for library reading to be most favored and other recreational reading and organized classroom reading to be least favored by all students.

Mean percentile ranks and stanines from the comprehension portion of the *Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test* are reported in Table 2. These urban students scored below average. Boys scored at the 30th percentile and girls scored at the 37th percentile.

Means and standard deviations are reported for total miscues, meaning changing miscues, and oral reading rate in Table 3. To include the poorest readers who were unable to complete the primer passage a second description of reading performance on a 50-word preprimer passage is reported in Table 4. No significant differences were detected between boys and girls in either analysis, but two general trends emerged. First, girls read faster than boys. Second, students who were unable to complete the primer passage read more slowly and made more miscues (total and meaning-changing) than students who could complete the primer passage.

No significant relationships were found between reading achievement scores and total attitude score or between achievement scores and attitude toward recreational reading (see Table 5).

Correlations of the total attitude score with the three reading performance scores showed no significant correlations at primer (see Table 6) or

TABLE 1

Mean Heathington Primary Attitude Scale Scores

Attitude	Cases[1]	Mean[2]	S.D
Free classroom reading			
Boys	54	4.08	0.88
Girls	54	4.08	0.96
All Subjects	68	4.08	0.89
Organized classroom reading			
Boys	55	5.80	0.79
Girls	54	5.71	0.96
All Subjects	67	5.76	0.88
Reading at library			
Boys	54	4.52	0. 70
Girls	54	4.45	0.62
All Subjects	68	4.47	0.66
Reading at home			
Boys	55	5.94	.085
Girls	54	4 27	0.54
All Subjects	69	4.10	0.75
Other recreational reading			
Boys	55	5.58	0.88
Girls	55	5.54	0.92
All Subjects	68	5.46	0.90
Total reading			
Boys	55	5.85	0.55
Girls	55	5 94	0.65
All Subjects	66	5.90	0.59

[1] Case numbers differ due to missing information.
[2] Range 1 (low) to 5 (high)

TABLE 2

Mean Gates MacGinitie Extended Scale Scores (ESS), Stanines and Percentile Ranks for Reading Comprehension

	Cases	Mean ESS	S.D.	Mean Stanine	Mean Percentile Rank
Boys	42	574.91	49.76	4	30
Girls	42	587.74	58.35	4	37
All Subjects	84	581.32	54.28	4	35

TABLE 3
Mean Oral Reading Performance Scores (Primer Only)

Performance	Cases	Mean	S.D.
Number of total miscues			
Boys	33	11.12	11.96
Girls	35	13.29	11.31
All Subjects	68	12.24	11.59
Number of meaning changing miscues			
Boys	33	6.09	8.63
Girls	35	7.09	8.72
All Subjects	68	6.60	8.63
Oral reading rate (words per minute)			
Boys	33	57.00	32.01
Girls	35	61.23	39.41
All Subjects	68	59.18	35.81

TABLE 4
Mean Oral Reading Performance Scores (Primer and Preprimer)

Performance	Cases	Mean	S.D.
Number of total miscues			
Boys	39	14.64	15.07
Girls	40	15.98	15.86
All Subjects	79	15.32	15.39
Number of meaning changing miscues			
Boys	39	10.18	13.63
Girls	40	9.70	13.57
All Subjects	79	9.94	13.51
Oral reading rate (words per minute)			
Boys	39	50.64	33.09
Girls	40	56.13	39.41
All Subjects	79	53.42	36.80

TABLE 5
Correlations of Reading Achievement with Attitudes Toward Reading by Gender

Attitudes	Boys	Girls	All
Free classroom reading	0.00	–0.21	–0.12
Organized classroom reading	0.08	0.07	0.06
Reading at library	–0.34*	–0.12	–0.24*
Reading at home	0.16	–0.21	0.05
Other recreational reading	0.07	0.00	0.05
Total reading	0.06	–0.14	–0.04

*$p < .05$, two-tailed.

primer/preprimer levels (see Table 7). Comparison of the correlations of achievement/total attitude (see Table 5) with performance/total attitude (see Tables 6 and 7) revealed consistently weak relations for both achievement and performance.

Finally, independent t-tests revealed no significant differences in total attitude between: the sample population and high achieving readers ($t = -0.11$, $df = 10$), the sample population and low achieving readers ($t = 1.19$, $df = 10$), and the high and low achieving readers ($t = -0.11$, $df = 10$; all $p > .05$).

DISCUSSION

The findings of the present study suggest no relationship between attitude and achievement or between attitude and performance for urban second grade students early in the school year. These findings support Swanson's (1985) findings for first graders but contradict Askov and Fischbach's (1973)

TABLE 6

Correlations or Oral Reading Performance with Attitudes Toward Reading (Primer Only) by Gender

Attitudes	Boys	Girls	All
Free classroom reading			
Total miscues	0.06	0.31	0.21
Meaning changing miscues	0.01	0.09	0.06
Oral reading rate	–0.17	–0.11	–0.13
Organized classroom reading			
Total miscues	0.15	–0.03	0.04
Meaning changing miscues	0.09	–0.15	–0.06
Oral reading rate	–0.10	0.15	0.05
Reading at library			
Total miscues	0.25	0.04	0.13
Meaning changing miscues	0.24	–0.02	0.09
Oral reading rate	–0.43*	–0.07	–0.24
Reading at home			
Total miscues	0.11	0.22	0.19
Meaning changing miscues	0.14	0.01	0.10
Oral reading rate	–0.16	–0.29	–0.20
Other recreational reading			
Total miscues	–0.05	–0.05	0.00
Meaning changing miscues	–0.02	–0.20	–0.10
Oral reading rate	–0.10	0.10	0.01
Total reading			
Total miscues	0.12	0.16	0.17
Meaning changing miscues	0.11	–0.05	0.05
Oral reading rate	–0.23	–0.06	–0.15

*$p < .05$, two-tailed.

TABLE 7

Correlations of Oral Reading Performance with Attitudes Toward Reading (Primer and Preprimer) by Gender

Attitudes	Boys	Girls	All
Free classroom reading			
Total miscues	0.06	0.21	0.15
Meaning changing miscues	0.08	0.06	0.05
Oral reading rate	–0.16	–0.18	–0.14
Organized classroom reading			
Total miscues	0.16	–0.16	–0.05
Meaning changing miscues	0.14	–0.24	–0.10
Oral reading rate	–0.17	0.17	0.08
Reading at library			
Total miscues	0.35	–0.06	0.14
Meaning changing miscues	0.35	–0.10	0.15
Oral reading rate	–0.50*	–0.05	–0.29†
Reading at home			
Total miscues	0.08	0.10	0.09
Meaning changing miscues	0.06	–0.06	0.00
Oral reading rate	–0.09	–0.25	–0.12
Other recreational reading			
Total miscues	–0.02	–0.17	–0.09
Meaning changing miscues	0.01	–0.29	–0.13
Oral reading rate	–0.16	0.18	0.00
Total reading			
Total miscues	0.10	–0.02	0.04
Meaning changing miscues	0.10	–0.17	–0.04
Oral reading rate	–0.24	–0.08	–0.12

*$p < .01$, two-tailed.
†$p < .05$, two-tailed.

report of a positive relationship between attitude toward recreational reading and achievement.

These results may be explained by a combination of two factors. First, younger children have had less experience with reading instruction and fewer negative experiences with reading that may lead to negative attitudes. Second, younger children generally maintain higher expectancies for future success after experiencing failure than older children (Parsons & Ruble, 1977). To them, being able means trying harder because they do not perceive school success as related to ability (Nicholls, 1978, 1979). This would mean that they still lack reason to believe that they will not be successful readers so there is little reason for negative attitude formation.

The findings also support the fact that our urban youth are struggling. At the beginning of second grade these students are at a mean percentile rank of 35 for reading comprehension achievement, and boys are even further

behind. Boys were also slower readers than girls. These two findings may be related to boys' less positive attitudes toward *reading at home* and toward *other recreational reading*.

On average, attitudes toward reading are still positive, but the average ratings for attitudes toward *recreational reading* and *organized classroom reading* are approaching neutral. These lower ratings may signal the beginning of an accumulation of negative experiences.

One aspect of attitude, *reading at library*, is significantly and negatively correlated with reading achievement and oral reading rate for boys. This doesn't suggest that high-achieving or fast-reading boys don't like reading at the library because a check of the mean score shows this aspect to be the most positive attitude of all. Comparison of the correlations for oral reading rate for primer and preprimer level boys ($r = -.50$) with the correlations that include primer level boys only ($r = -.43$) indicates that when the least able readers are included in the analysis, the relationship becomes stronger and increases in significance. Reading at the library therefore appears to be a positive experience, especially for boys who are the least able readers. These findings may point to a teaching approach with primary boys who are at risk in reading. Since a self-selected literature-based approach to teaching reading closely mirrors reading at the library, this approach may provide a key to maintaining and/or improving attitudes toward reading of at-risk boys.

Overall, there were few significant correlations between reading achievement or oral reading performance and attitude toward reading. The correlation of *total reading* attitude with achievement replicates previous findings of nonsignificant low correlations. This suggests that looking at total attitude is not a fruitful line of investigation. However, Askov and Fischbachs' (1978) finding for recreational reading and this study's finding for *reading at library* support the need for an attitude scale that is reliable and valid for particular aspects of reading attitude.

Further investigation into the nature of the variables that are related to aspects of attitude toward reading also seems warranted since subjects' comments during assessment and interviewing support a relationship. More specifically, some of the readers who actually did well on both achievement and performance viewed themselves as poor readers. Thus, the factors influencing the development of student self-perceptions about reading, including attitudes, might be a focus of further research.

REFERENCES

Alexander, J., & Filler, R. (1976). *Attitudes and reading.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Askov, E.N., & Fischbach, T.J. (1973). An investigation of primary pupils' attitudes toward reading. *Journal of Experimental Education, 41,* 1–7.

Blumenfeld, P.C., Pintrich, P.R., Meece, J., & Wessels, K. (1982). The formation and role of self-perceptions of ability in elementary classrooms. *Elementary School Journal, 82,* 401–420.

Coster, J.K. (1958). Attitudes toward school of high school pupils from three income levels. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 49,* 61–66.

Dwyer, E., & Reed, V. (1989). Effects of sustained silent reading on attitudes toward reading. *Reading Horizons, 29,* 283–293.

Eshel, Y., & Klein, Z. (1981). Development of academic self-concept of lower-class and middle-class primary school children. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 73,* 187–193.

Heathington, B. (1976). Scales for measuring attitude. In J. Alexander & R. Filler, *Attitudes and reading* (pp. 27–32). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Johns, J.L. (1988). *Basic reading inventory* (4th ed.). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Kibby, M. (1977). The status and the attitudes of homogeneously grouped second-graders: An exploratory study. *Elementary School Journal, 78,* 18–21.

Lipsky, J.A. (1983). A picture-story technique to uncover covert attitudes associated with reading failure. *Reading Psychology, 4,* 151–155.

Neale, D.C., & Proshek, J.M. (1967). School-related attitudes of culturally disadvantaged elementary school children. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 58,* 238–244.

Nicholls, J.G. (1979). Development of perception of own attainment and causal attributions for success and failure in reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 71,* 84–100.

Nicholls, J.G. (1978). The development of the concepts of effort and ability, perception of academic attainment, and the understanding that difficult tasks require more ability. *Child Development, 49,* 800–814.

Parker, A., & Paradis, E. (1986). Attitude development toward reading in grades one through six. *Journal of Educational Research, 79,* 313–315.

Parsons, J.E., & Ruble, D.N. (1977). The development of achievement-related expectancies. *Child Development, 48,* 1075–1079.

Swanson, B. (1985). Teacher judgments of first-graders' reading enthusiasm. *Reading Research and Instruction, 25,* 41–46.

Swanson, B. (1988). Linguistic awareness and reading attitude among minority students. *Reading Improvement, 20,* 236–238.

Vacca, R., & Vacca, J. (1989). *Content area reading* (3rd ed.). Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

Walberg, H., & Tsai, S. (1985). Correlates of reading achievement and attitudes: A national assessment study. *Journal of Educational Research, 78,* 159–167.

Wigfield, A., & Asher, S.R. (1984). Social and motivational influences on reading. In P.D. Pearson, R. Barr, M.L. Kamil, & P. Mosenthal (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (pp. 423–452). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Yee, A. (1968). Interpersonal attitudes of teachers and advantaged and disadvantaged pupils. *Journal of Human Resources, 3,* 327–345.

KNOWING ABOUT TEACHER EDUCATION IN LITERACY

Video-Based CASE Analysis to Enhance Teacher Preparation

VICTORIA J. RISKO
DALE YOUNT
Peabody College of Vanderbilt University
JANET TOWELL
California State University, Stanislaus

Theorists and researchers examining effective teacher education programs provide compelling reasons for reform if our goal is to prepare teachers for solving problems in complex and problem-laden contexts (Berliner, 1985; Clandinin & Connelly, 1986). Studies of expert teachers' actions and thoughts reaffirm our long-standing belief that the practice of teaching is a complex cognitive skill that requires not only knowledge about what to do but also the ability to know when and how to use this information when confronted with problems and unexpected situations (Clark, 1988; Leinhardt & Greeno, 1986). Yet methods courses, microteaching, and other preteaching experiences may fail to equip teachers with problem-solving strategies because they do not reflect the "intrinsic uncertainty of teaching" (Clark, 1988, p. 10) and may present a simplistic or unrepresentative view of teaching (Ball & Feiman-Nemser, 1986; Clark, 1988).

College teacher education courses often develop factual knowledge of various methods and activities without developing problem-solving strategies that are needed for the appropriate application of these methods. Meaningful use of information "learned" in college classes may be inhibited because prospective teachers don't understand how to use it to solve problems. Cognitive theorists such as Anderson (1982, 1987), Bransford and Vye (1989), and Lesgold (1988) argue that meaningful learning occurs when the learner can transform factual or declarative knowledge into conditionalized knowl-

This project was partially funded by a grant from the Sears Roebuck Foundation to the first author.

edge, which is the ability to analyze conditions for the application of principles, concepts, and strategies. Teachers who don't think to use information they know when it is needed, referred to as inert knowledge by Whitehead (1929), often know what to do but don't know when or why procedures are most appropriately applied. Lesgold (1988) argues that declarative knowledge can be gained from teacher lectures or textbooks, but this knowledge alone will not help learners solve problems unless they translate the knowledge into "mental acts," defining and thinking about problems in ways that produce reasonable solutions.

Unfortunately, teacher training classes are largely formal, lecture-based affairs in which students are simply told what experts know (facts) or how experts solve classroom dilemmas(procedures). Such lecture-based instruction is ineffectual because it does not enable students to learn how to analyze the effects of situational and classroom contexts on a classroom teacher's choice of method. Moreover, it is extremely difficult to describe verbally the nuances and dynamics that occur when children and their teacher interact in classroom environments. Because of the linear nature of lectures, examples used to explain target concepts can seem unrelated to each other. Students must then attempt to make sense of disparate experiences instead of being engaged in commonly shared experiences requiring use of relevant knowledge to find solutions to target problems.

REVISING AN UNDERGRADUATE READING METHODOLOGY COURSE

At Vanderbilt University, we are currently involved in a project using technology as an alternative to the lecture approach to education. Influenced by earlier projects at our technology center (e.g., Barron, Bransford, Kulewicz, & Hasselbring, 1989; Bransford, Sherwood, Hasselbring, 1986; Risko & Kinzer, 1986), we are involving our students in shared-learning contexts for the analysis of problems confronting teachers as illustrated in video-based case examples. We believe that these cases can help future teachers recognize the similarity between information learned in college classes and information required for successful teaching in real classrooms (Bransford, Franks, Vye, & Sherwood, 1989).

Principles guiding instruction that is anchored in video-based contexts provide a way to operationalize the recent conceptual change found in the teacher education literature. Learning to teach does not result from accumulating knowledge of facts and procedures. Rather, learning to teach should occur in rich problem-solving contexts that produce "knowledge that interacts with the particular context and classroom situation in which the knowledge is transformed into action" (Richardson, 1990, p.12). Such practical knowledge enables a teacher to evaluate a problem quickly and take action on the basis of knowledge gained from similar situations in the past, forming a set of contextual and situational premises (Fenstermacher, 1986, 1988).

We targeted an undergraduate course, Remedial Reading and Practicum, which is required for elementary and special education majors and taken during the students' junior or senior years. For the first eight weeks, regular class sessions are held on campus. For the remaining six weeks, each student is assigned to a practicum setting and is responsible for planning and implementing reading instruction for a low-achieving student.

Problems Observed in Target Course Prior to Revision

Even though students have completed one reading course and a language arts course with an accompanying practicum prior to enrolling in the target course, they come to this course with "textbook" definitions of the reading process and restricted notions about the complex demands of instruction. Their understanding of remedial readers tends to be narrow, usually related to "have not" characteristics (e.g., limited mental ability, deprived family life, deficient skill development), which further restricts their understanding of low-achieving students' capabilities and the multiple factors that might interact to produce disabled readers. They have naive understandings of diagnostic instruction, assuming that a test-teach cycle will produce "quick fixes" for complex problems.

Prior to revision, much of the remedial reading class was devoted to helping students understand that instruction is affected by multiple factors (e.g., teachers' beliefs, teachers' knowledge of assessment and instructional strategies, students' diverse learning needs). Prototypic, written case studies illustrated the conduct of specific assessment and instructional strategies and problems that students might encounter. For example, our students studied the extensive verbal reports of three reading-disabled adults collected by Johnston (1985) to identify how misconceptions about the reading process and reliance on faulty reading strategies can contribute to reading problems. Students seemed to leave the course with more information about the range of factors affecting the reading process and how to evaluate the appropriateness of instructional strategies. Yet these students seemed (1) inflexible when thinking about multiple problems that students may encounter, (2) limited in their application of intervention strategies to novel instructional contexts, and (3) limited in their use of alternate strategies for times when instruction didn't go as expected.

Revising Process

We developed three cases that are recorded on videodisc and are enhanced by hypercard and microcomputer technology. Our goal was to develop rich contexts within which factors related to reading problems could be studied from multiple perspectives. The literature on case methodology and our previous work with video-based instruction influenced our case development. We plan to use these cases to increase our students' opportunities for

exploring authentic, classroom situations that require an examination of multiple factors and for using newly acquired information to generate and analyze reasonable solutions to complex problems.

Case design. Our notion of case-based instruction is influenced by case methodology as used in other professional schools, such as medicine, business, and law, in which students are prepared to know and act simultaneously (Ryle, 1949). Case methodology, as described by Christensen (1987) and Learned (1987), is a process oriented approach that encourages problem formulation and problem-solving. Students are personally involved in exploring relationships, identifying questions, and finding answers to questions. Cases should "include enough intriguing decision points and provocative undercurrents to make a group want to think and argue about them" (Hansen, 1987, p. 265).

Yet case methodology is not without its limitations. The success of students' involvement in exploring and discussing case information depends on their prior experiences and preconceptions and the richness and integration of the data presented (Christensen, 1987; Gragg, 1940; Learned, 1987; Pichert, 1989). Recognizing that these limitations can occur, it seems that the use of videotape technology could optimize cases presented in written form, and that videodisc-based cases could greatly strengthen cases presented on videotapes. For example, our cases involve detailed study of a student's reading problems that are on videodiscs in the form of macrocon-texts—semantically rich contexts that invite students to generate questions for finding and learning information across multiple disciplines. Using the rapid, random access and freeze-frame capabilities of videodisc, students can reexamine and "cross-examine" scenes and cases for different reasons and have access to information that may be difficult to describe in written or verbal accounts (e.g., teachers' nonverbal cues, multiple classroom events occurring simultaneously).

Case development. Our initial three cases represent the "critical mass" (advocated by Spiro, Vispoel, Schmitz, Samarapungavan, and Boerger, 1987) of information needed for examination to help students understand case-specific information and to enable them to generate linkages across the cases. Two teachers with a history of successful remedial instruction were selected and videotaped. Entire lessons were videotaped during six to eight weeks of instruction. Hours of videotaped segments were edited and condensed for the production of three 30-minute master tapes, which were then pressed onto three videodiscs. Each case contains various forms of naturally occurring classroom events (e.g., teacher-student interaction, parent-teacher interviews, student participation in guided reading lessons) demonstrating factors that contribute to the complexity (and irregularity) of reading disabilities. Principles for developing case-based instruction (as suggested by Christensen and his colleagues at Harvard University), embedded information designs within video-based instruction (as suggested by Bransford

and his colleagues), and research on teaching (e.g., Berliner, 1985) were used to guide the design of cases.

Hypercard technology was developed to enhance the effectiveness of instruction, both for whole class and independent student activity, by encouraging access to multiple sources of information for a more elaborative, in-depth study of each case. The opening menu for each case indicates that the viewer is the diagnostic problem solver and can choose multiple sources of information to learn about the selected case (see Figure 1). During whole class and/or small group sessions, students explore case characteristics and generate questions and hypotheses that are discussed and debated in class. Comparison of situational and contextual factors across cases helps students develop flexible use of problem-solving strategies.

Additionally, our main menu allows access to two categories entitled "Advice from the Experts" and "Matter for the Grey Cells," respectively. The first is a collection of video scenes and text excerpts representing reading experts' views on major concepts relevant to the case. For example, we have scenes in which Richard Allington discusses time allocation within remedial instruction. Students interpret information that is relevant to case-specific data and think critically about similar and divergent viewpoints. The "Matter for the Grey Cells" category provides "challenge" questions that require students to view the cases and their possible solutions from alternative perspectives. For one exercise, students compare and contrast a basal reader lesson

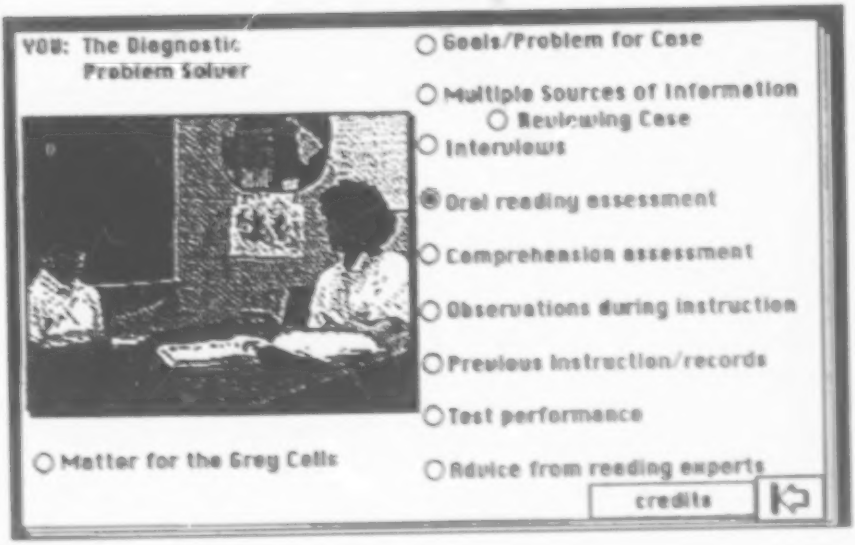


Figure 1.

and a literature-based lesson for analyzing the remedial student's participation and concept development. Such activities have the potential to help students recognize the situational characteristics that need to be identified for successful problem identification and solution (Bransford, Vye, Kinzer and Risko, 1990).

Our hypercard serves several additional purposes. An initial card in the stack indicates the wide range of factors (e.g., instructional context, background knowledge, text characteristics, knowledge/use of language cueing systems, beliefs/attitudes, knowledge/use of strategies, and knowledge/use of comprehension cues) that can be examined for analyzing possible factors contributing to the student's reading difficulty (see Figure 2).

The use of the hypercard also facilitates viewing a single case from multiple perspectives. For example, if a case is viewed for the purpose of determining a teacher's decision leading to management and grouping arrangements, it can also be viewed, through another hypercard stack, for the purposes of analyzing a teacher's questioning strategies, and again for determining the teacher's strategies for enhancing students' vocabulary development, and so on. Because the cases are on videodisc, appropriate scenes can be easily and quickly accessed. Returning to a case in this manner is difficult in videotape applications or when no guiding "script" is available through the hypercard.

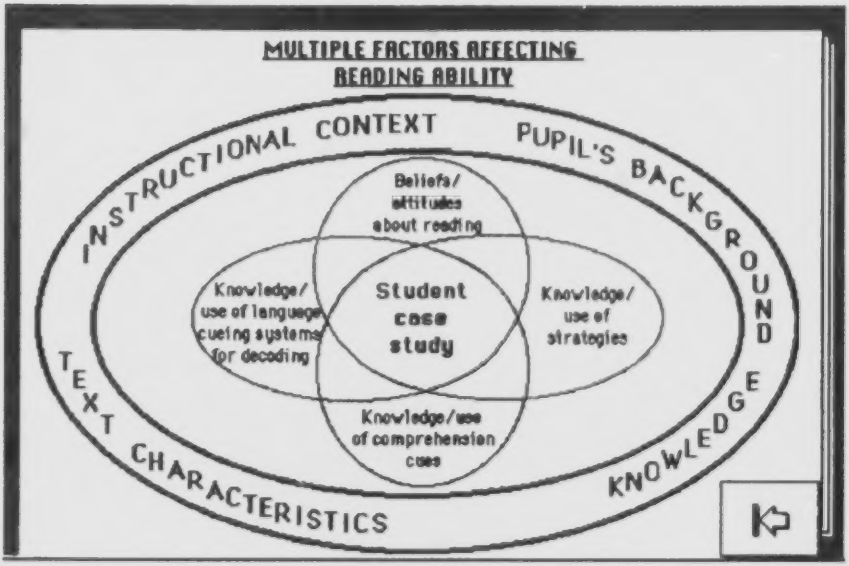


Figure 2.

Rationale for Our Case Design

For at least two specific reasons, our cases can prepare teachers to think flexibly and to solve disparate problems in the classroom. First, the approach to analysis is process oriented (Rasinski, 1989; Eldridge, 1990). Case information is presented in stages for the purpose of encouraging our students' analysis, reflection, and problem-solving. Our cases do not contain resolutions. Instead, the content can be studied for different reasons, many of which can be generated by the students. Traditional written cases, in contrast, may not provide rich information about complex instructional contexts or engage students in problem-solving activities. Thus, they may oversimplify complex information and, therefore, inhibit students' problem-solving ability when confronted with real world, complex problems (Spiro et al., 1987). Also, the provision of a specific, "correct" solution in traditional written cases prevents students from taking an active role in making decisions about how information should be framed and about how problems could be solved. As Richardson (1990) and others indicate, the process of learning to teach must involve a dialogue requiring identification of problems and causal relationships and justification of why and when to employ specific strategies. Such involvement seems necessary to prepare teachers to analyze situations and to know how to use their acquired knowledge as tools to solve problems (Bransford et al., 1990).

Second, technology to combine visual information with text represents an important advantage for video-based instruction over written case studies (see Bransford, Kinzer, Risko, Rowe, & Vye, 1989, for a more detailed discussion). Students' learning within case-based instruction depends on the richness of information presented in the cases (Gragg, 1940; Learned, 1987) and on supporting instruction that encourages students to examine cases from multiple points of view. Although written case studies can provide rich descriptions, these descriptions are translations of what another author viewed. Conversely, video presentations provide the authentic classroom events, allowing each viewer to develop a personal description and interpretation, which can lead to a deeper study of events and the generation of multiple questions to be pursued further. Video presentations can capture linguistic expressions plus visual and auditory information, such as the environmental context for the lessons, facial expressions, inflections of voice, and gestures. There is much to notice within the presentation. Such a context for learning provides an opportunity for sustained thinking about problems and can help students to experience and understand changes in their perception and comprehension of the case information (Bransford et al, 1989).

DISCUSSION

Video-based case analysis is not a stand-alone procedure for enhancing teacher education. Instead, its potential benefits for preparing teachers may

be influenced by a number of important factors: the importance of acknowledging and making use of students' background knowledge and previous experiences during class discussions (Anderson & Pearson, 1984), the benefit of cooperative learning when examining cases (Slavin, 1987), the facilitative effect of problem generation (Bransford et al., 1989), the importance of teachers and peers mediating or coaching learning experiences (Bransford & Vye, 1989), and so on.

Nevertheless, the video cases can provide opportunities for a professor and college students to work together in shared contexts. Students view information from their own perspectives, find information for exploring and framing problems, and experience changes in their learning as they are introduced to new ideas from the professor, from the texts, and from their peers. We believe that these cases can be used to create environments for analyzing the complexity of authentic classroom problems and for using information flexibly to generate solutions that are workable within specific situational contexts.

REFERENCES

Anderson, J. R. (1987). Skill acquisition: Compilation of weak-method problem solutions. *Psychological Review*, 94, 192–210.

Anderson, J.R. (1983). *The architecture of cognition.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Anderson, J. R. (1982). Acquisition of cognitive skill. *Psychological Review*, 39, 294–312.

Anderson, R. C., & Pearson, P. D. (1984). A schema-theoretic view of processes in reading comprehension. In P. D. Pearson (Ed.), *Handbook of reading research* (pp. 255–291). New York: Longman.

Ball, D.L., & Feiman-Nemser, S. (1988). Using textbooks and teacher's guides: A dilemma for beginning teachers and teacher educators. *Curriculum Inquiry, 18*, 401–424.

Barron, B., Bransford, J., Kulewicz, S., & Hasselbring, T. (1989, April). *Uses of macrocontexts to facilitate mathematical thinking.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA.

Berliner, D. C. (1985). Laboratory settings and the study of teacher educa-

tión. *Journal of Teacher Education, 36*(6), 2-7.

Bransford, J. D., Franks, J. J., Vye, N. J., & Sherwood, R. D. (1989). New approaches to instruction: Because wisdom can't be told. In S. Vosniadou & A. Ortony (Eds.), *Similarity and analogical reasoning* (pp. 470–497). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Bransford, J. D., Kinzer, C., Risko, V., Rowe, D., & Vye, N. (1989). Designing invitations to thinking: Some initial thoughts. In S. McCormick & J. Zutell (Eds.), *Cognitive and social perspectives for literacy research and instruction* (pp. 35–54). Chicago: National Reading Conference.

Bransford, J. D., Sherwood, R., & Hasselbring, T. (1988). The video revolution and its effects on development: Some initial thoughts. In G. Foremann & P. Pufall (Eds.), *Constructivism in the computer age* (pp. 173–201). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Bransford, J. D., & Vye, N. (1989). Cognitive research and its implications for instruction. In L. B. Resnick & L. E. Klopfer (Eds.), *Toward the thinking curriculum: Current cognitive research* (pp. 173-205). Chicago: ASCD.

Bransford, J. D., Vye, N., Kinzer, C., & Risko, V. (1990). Teaching thinking and content knowledge: Toward an integrated approach. In B. F. Jones & L. Idol (Eds.), *Dimensions of thinking and cognitive instruction* (pp. 381–413). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Christensen, C. R. (1987). Teaching with cases at the Harvard Business School. In C. Christensen (Ed.), *Teaching and the case method* (pp. 16–49). Boston: Harvard Business School.

Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F. M. (1986). Rhythms in teaching: The narrative study of teachers' personal practical knowledge of classrooms. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 2, 377–387.

Clark, C. M. (1988). Asking the right questions about teacher preparation: Contributions of research on teacher thinking. *Educational Researcher*, 17, 5–13.

Eldridge, R. J. (1990). Developing case studies to prepare reading educators. In B. L. Hayes & K. Camperell (Eds.), *Achieving excellence in reading* (pp. 143–149). Logan, UT: American Reading Forum.

Fenstermacher, G. D. (1988). Prologue to my critics. A reply to my critics. *Educational Theory*, 37, 357–360; 413–422.

Fenstermacher, G. D. (1986). Philosophy of research on teaching: Three aspects. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (3rd. ed.) (pp. 37-49). New York: Macmillan.

Gragg, C.I. (1940). Teachers also must learn. *Harvard Educational Review*, 10, 30–47.

Hansen, A.J. (1987). Reflections of a case writer: Writing teaching cases. In C. R. Christensen (Ed.), *Teaching and the case method* (pp. 264-270). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School.

Johnston, P.H. (1985). Understanding reading disability: A case study approach. *Harvard Educational Review, 55*(2), 153–177.

Learned, E. P. (1987). Reflections of a case method teacher. In C.R. Christensen (Ed.), *Teaching and the case method* (pp. 9–15). Boston: Harvard Business School.

Leinhardt, G., & Greeno, J. G. (1986). The cognitive skill of teaching. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 78, 75–95.

Lesgold, A. (1988). Problem-solving. In R. J. Sternberg & E. E. Smith (Eds.), *The psychology of human thought* (pp. 76–106). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Pichert, J. (1989, August). Personal communication, Vanderbilt University.

Rasinski, T. (1989). The case method approach in reading education. *Reading Horizons*, 30, 5–14.

Richardson, V. (1990). Significant and worthwhile change in teaching practice. *Educational Researcher, 19*, 10–18.

Risko, V., & Kinzer, C. (1986). *Macrocontexts to facilitate learning.* (Grant No. 6008710018). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

Ryle, G. (1949). *The concept of mind.* London: Hutchinson.

Slavin, R. E. (1987). *Cooperative learning: Student teams.* Washington, DC: National Educational Association.

Spiro, R.J., Vispoel, W.L., Schmitz, J., Samarapungavan, A., & Boerger, A. (1987). Knowledge acquisition for application: Cognitive flexibility and transfer in complex content domains. In B.C. Britton & S. M. Glynn (Eds.), *Executive control-processes in reading* (pp. 177–199). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Whitehead, A. N. (1929). *The aims of education.* New York: Macmillan.

A Descriptive Study of the Reflective Statements of Preservice Teachers

BARBARA J. WALKER
Eastern Montana College

Teaching is no longer conceptualized as the precise implementation of instruction but rather as elusive and complex acts that embody the constructive nature of teaching and learning. In this view, teachers evaluate the way students construct meaning and adjust instruction by supporting the strategic application of reading processes. They observe and reflect on the conditions of instruction that promote active reading. This changing view of teaching and learning affects teacher preparation programs. Preservice teachers need to encounter problematic situations where they can recast their experiences in order to develop instructional alternatives. However, few teacher education programs currently provide opportunities for preservice teachers to plan, act, observe, reflect, and describe their teaching (Alvermann, 1990; Schon, 1988).

In this study, teaching is considered a complex activity grounded in reflective practice. Reflection is focused on features of an instructional event (i.e., reconsidering one's actions in order to clarify and expand knowledge about teaching reading). In this sense, preservice education serves not only as a basis for expanding knowledge of teaching but also as a means to solve complex instructional problems and then reflect on the conditions that framed each literacy event.

The study was designed to explore the reflective statements of preservice teachers during a reading clinic situation. For the purpose of this study, reflection was defined as recasting situations and reconsidering the range of possible conditions that could affect student learning (Grimmett, MacKinnon,

Erickson, & Riecken, 1990). These preservice teachers learned procedures for dynamic assessment and were required to record observations of and reflections about student learning. Key components of the literacy events were discussed in terms of the adjustments a teacher could make in the text characteristics, the task, the technique used during instruction, and the context, including the amount and kind of instructional support.

METHOD

Using an ethnographic research stance, the researcher was a participant observer in an after-school, university reading clinic where 18 preservice teachers taught students who had been referred by their parents because of concerns about classroom reading performance. The clinic was in session for one-and-a-half hours twice each week for six weeks. The preservice teachers also attended a seminar on diagnostic reading instruction for one-and-a-half hours each week of the term. The setting was an open space arrangement where each teaching dyad (preservice teacher and problem reader) had an instructional area along the side of a large room. The researcher participated in the learning community by orally reading children's books to both the clients and the preservice teachers.

Procedures

The preservice teachers completed diagnostic narratives (Walker, 1990), which included four aspects: plans, rationales for plans, observations during instruction, and reflections after instruction. Although the entire diagnostic narratives were evaluated, the reflections accounted for only 1 percent of the course grade. Further data sources for the study included daily observations, informal interviews with participants, and collection of literacy artifacts.

Analysis

All diagnostic narratives were screened, and six from the most productive teachers were selected for further analysis. Reflections were first segmented into idea units. The idea unit was selected since it was flexible enough to capture the instructional intent of reflection. For example, the following sentences represented one idea: "The cloze didn't work well. I'm going to try it one more time to see if it will get better." This preservice teacher was considering the use of the cloze technique even though she explained her thoughts in two sentences.

Idea units were analyzed and categorized using analytic induction (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984). The researcher began analysis with two broad categories mentioned in the research literature (Brophy, 1984): management and impact of instruction. During analysis, the "impact of instruction" category expanded to include multiple categories that included various conditions of instruction. This continued as subsequent narratives were analyzed.

Further, all statements were supported by at least two other sources: data from literacy artifacts (mini-assessments, lesson plans, materials used) and researcher observations.

Finally, categories were reviewed for coherence. This led to the collapsing of statements into 10 categories. For example, the statement "I will use a different book, a predictable book" was placed in the same category with the statement "I'll keep using the same text so as not to lose her positive feeling about reading." Although one statement described an adjustment and another described a continuation of the original plan, both involved rethinking what had been observed and a decision about the text, a condition of instruction. Once categories were established, a second rater was given category titles, descriptions, and the narratives. An interrater reliability of 100 percent resulted through discussion and review by both parties.

RESULTS

Ten categories, which are defined in Table 1, emerged from the analysis. Percentages by category were determined for each participant. These percentages were averaged across participants for each category. Although the participants were concerned about varying aspects of instruction, they all had concerns in the identified categories.

All participants were concerned about management of the instructional program (7 percent). For instance, on day 2 Teacher GB stated, "Maybe I

TABLE 1
Categories of Reflective Statements

Category	Definition
Management	Statements about time or behavior management
Reader affect	Statements that related to the positive or negative disposition of the reader
Personal	Statements that reflected personal concerns
Reader strategy deployment	Statements about how the student was applying strategies while reading
Reader performance	Statements about level of reading performance
Task	Statements related to adjustments or performance of the designated task
Text	Statements related to adjustments or level of the text
Scaffolding	Statements about the amount and kind of support offered
Technique	Statements reflecting a change or use of an instructional technique
Situational	Statements indicating that procedures related to the general plan had been changed

should have short breaks when I notice signs of stress." This same teacher commented about management on day 8 by stating, "It [reader's theatre] breaks up the routine." The comments about management tended to surface when major changes in plans were implemented.

Affective concerns (7 percent) usually centered around students' enjoyment and confidence during the literacy event. For instance, Teacher CS stated, "She is confident that her reading ability has increased. I assured her that I agree." The preservice teachers infrequently reflected on personal concerns (3 percent), such as forgetting a book to read during sustained silent reading.

Statements about Reading Performance

All participants discussed both the reader's strategy use and the level of reading performance (21 percent). For instance, Teacher AC discussed her student's development of sense of story by addressing sequencing as well as the level of performance (category types appear in brackets):

Day 6—I was shocked she could answer questions with 100% accuracy [reader performance], but couldn't relate to the sequence of the story [reader strategy deployment].

Day 7—However (even after adjustments), she still has a problem sequencing the events [reader strategy deployment].

Day 11—I couldn't believe the improvement on story mapping. I was surprised when she began so suddenly as if she had ideas of her own [reader strategy deployment].

Day 12—I was surprised to see her new levels—Frustration was at 4th grade. Things improved from 2nd grade level with 67% comprehension [reader performance].

This illustrates how the participants monitored the student's reading not only on level of performance but also on strategy deployment.

Statements about the Conditions of Instruction

All participants made statements about the conditions of instruction by commenting on the task (11 percent), the text (15 percent), scaffolding (15 percent), the technique (13 percent) and the situation (4 percent). For example, when talking about the text, Teacher SB stated, "I tried a level higher [text statement] to give him a challenge but it's too difficult. So I went back to the original text level" [text statement]. This student reconsidered her decision to use a specific text by considering the reader's performance in that text.

The participants were concerned about the use of instructional techniques. For example, Teacher KH commented on the different techniques she used to encourage fluency development:

Day 8—Echo read some pages for better fluency.

Day 9—Continue to chart repeated readings. It gives S. more of a challenge and he

knows that when it shows his progress.

Day 11—Impress method helps S. chunk thoughts of sentence in more than 1 word. He's up to about 3 words per phrase. Fluency is getting better from this.

This illustrates how Teacher KH reflected on the use of various techniques to develop fluent word identification. She selected techniques to encourage chunking words into thought units and used several techniques to develop fluency.

Likewise, the participants reflected about the scaffolding used to promote reading. Often these reflections included statements about particular techniques, as evidenced in KH's statement, "When reading predictable books, keep encouraging S. to chunk more than 2 words together. This gives S. more of a sense of meaning of the story and he can read better." Teacher AC worked with a student who read words without constructing meaning, and she comments about the assistance she provided:

Day 4—I had to model how to predict! She usually just sits and doesn't want to try.
Day 7—I could tell she was trying hard to predict. I kept trying to bring different ideas to the surface for her to predict.
Day 9—I had to model continuously to try and explain this process (self-directed questioning).
Day 11—I couldn't believe the improvement from the 1st day (on prediction). I need to model and model!! She has ideas, but seems scared because they may not be correct. I tell her it's a guess or bet. She then can relax and enjoy— but only twice.

By recording the amount and kind of support given during the lesson, Teacher AC was able to describe the instructional conditions that promoted her student's active stance toward text. These statements again show the connections that Teacher AC made between the scaffolding she was using and the student's growth in a particular task. Often, the well-planned activity had to be modified as Teacher AC responded to her student.

These preservice teachers thought about the situational context by commenting on how the context had changed during the instructional event. For example, preservice teachers reconsidered how self-selection influenced students' reading behavior. They also commented on how self-assessment using charts increased motivation. For example, Teacher GB commented that self-selection of materials motivated his student. Teacher CS commented that "the Magnet goal was wonderful" concerning the technique that dealt with rewarding her student's question-asking behavior by using a free choice activity (predicting what a magnet would attract).

DISCUSSION

The preservice teachers in this study thought about a variety of aspects of instruction. Primarily, they reflected on the conditions of instruction, but they also thought about students' reading behaviors. They observed, recorded, and reflected on student progress. In fact, the categories of

reflective statements were remarkably similar to the conditions of instruction that other researchers have identified as affecting performance (e.g., Johnston, 1984; Pearson & Valencia, 1987). Although not as sophisticated as the expert teacher, these preservice teachers were able to describe the instructional conditions under which learning occurred. These descriptions, along with their developing knowledge of instructional alternatives, led them to design instructional programs to improve reading performance.

Contrary to previous research findings about novice teachers' concerns with management (Brophy, 1984), these preservice teachers were more concerned with the conditions of instruction. They looked at the complexity of instructional events rather than instructional delivery. They used their knowledge of the conditions of instruction to reflect on the practice situations. In other words, they used reflection as reconstructing experience (Grimmett et al., 1990, p. 27): "a process in which practitioners recast, reframe, and reconstruct past understandings in such a way as to generate fresh appreciations of the puzzlement or surprise inherent in a practice situation."

The reading clinic program was based on the premise of reconstructing experience and mediating this reconstructed experience. The diagnostic narratives in which the preservice teachers were asked to reflect in writing about the congruence between the instructional plans and instructional outcomes heightened their sensitivity to the instructional conditions. Thus, writing provided a means for self-reflection. As they described the instructional conditions, they came to a new appreciation of the complexity of their instruction and their knowledge of teaching alternatives.

REFERENCES

Alvermann, D.E. (1990). Reading teacher education. In W.R. Houston, M. Haberman, & J.P. Sikula (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 687–704). New York: Macmillan.

Brophy, J. (1984). The teacher as thinker: Implementing instruction. In G. Duffy, L. Roehler, & J. Mason (Eds.), *Comprehension instruction: Perspectives and suggestions* (pp. 71–92). New York: Longman.

Goetz, J.P., & LeCompte, M.D. (1984). *Ethnography and qualitative design in educational research.* Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

Grimmett, P.P., MacKinnon, A.M., Erickson, G.L., & Riecken, T.J. (1990). Reflective practice in teacher education. In R.T. Clift, W.R. Houston, & M.C. Pugach (Eds.), *Encouraging reflective practice in education: An analysis of issues and programs* (pp. 20–38). New York: Teachers College Press.

Johnson, P.H. (1984). Assessment in reading. In P.D. Pearson (Ed.), *Handbook of reading research* (pp. 147–182). New York: Longman.

Pearson, P.D., & Valencia, S. (1987), Assessment, accountability and professional prerogative. In J.E. Readence, & R.S. Baldwin (Eds.), *Research in literacy: Merging perspectives* (pp. 3–16). Rochester, NY: National Reading Conference.

Schon, D.A. (1988). Coaching reflective teaching. In P.P. Grimmett, & G.L. Erickson (Eds.), *Reflection in teacher education* (pp. 19–30). New York: Teachers College Press.

Walker, B.J. (1990). A model for diagnostic narratives in teacher education. In N. Padak, T. Rasinski, & J. Logan (Eds.), *Challenges in reading* (pp. 1–10). Provo, UT: College Reading Association.

Do as I Say, Not as I Do — Teacher Education

LINDA A. PACKMAN
Glassboro State College

What is the method of instruction in the elementary and secondary classroom? Sirotnik (1983) finds that "...the 'modus operandi' of the typical classroom is still didactics, practice and little else" (p. 17). Sirotnik describes typical elementary and secondary school learning as passive hands-off learning in apathetic environments. Cavazos (1990) confirms this in a report released by the National Assessment of Educational Progress.

> In 20 years...little has changed in the way students are taught. Even though research has shown that students do better when they learn through discussions and hands-on experiments...classroom work is still dominated by passive learning, such as listening to lectures and watching films. (p. A2)

How are teachers learning these ineffective methods of instruction? According to a Carnegie Corporation report, "The problem with teacher education is that the wrong people are studying the wrong things in the wrong places" (*Newsweek*, 1990, p. 58). Darling-Hammond says, "A lot of education courses are just ill conceived and poorly taught...." (Newsweek, 1990, p. 58). Kelly and Farnan (1990) agree and note the irony of teacher education where the instructor says one thing and practices another. "In many reading education classes, a discrepancy exists between what we want our students to learn and how we teach" (p.264). They support "...prevailing beliefs that teacher educators should themselves model instructional approaches they expect their students to use in student teaching and beyond" (p. 264). Bayer (1990) discusses the need for more active involvement of future teachers in their learning. She describes a model that moves away from lecture and provides opportunities for language and thinking to develop through small group interaction. Her methods involve building prior knowledge and learning through collaboration. Bayer supports more

hands-on learning and modeling. A special edition of *Newsweek* entitled "How To Teach Our Kids" (1990) suggests what needs to be done with public school reform:

> ...classroom teachers must de-emphasize lecture-style pedagogy, rote memorization and fact-oriented, textbook-driven course work. The real task for school reformers, as Honig and Boyer say, is finding the best way to get the new pedagogy into hundreds of thousands of classrooms nationwide. (p. 74)

Thus, a review of teaching practices in elementary, secondary, and college classes describes passive instruction. Teacher educators, if aware of more effective methods, do not practice them in their classes. We need to do more than spread the word in teacher education courses.

TRENDS IN INSTRUCTION

The National Training Laboratories report an average retention rate of 5 percent for lecture, 10 percent for reading, 20 percent for audiovisual, 30 percent for demonstration, 50 percent for discussion group, 75 percent for practice by doing, and 90 percent for teach others/immediate use of learning. In light of this, it seems ironic that most instruction in classrooms today employs lecture or reading as the primary instructional methods. These methods result in the least retention. According to Tyler (1949,p. 63), "Learning takes place through the active behavior of the student; it is what he does that he learns, not what the teacher does." Hollingsworth (1989) applies these ideas to preservice and inservice education. She describes two different ways that teachers learn ideas about teaching. The traditional approach in which an instructor prescribes or models techniques that students can memorize is compared to techniques in which teacher and student collaborate and learn beyond the example. Hollingsworth suggests that greater learning takes place when students transform learning rather than replicate examples.

The current trends in education reflect the importance of active involvement in learning. Education is more than imitation or duplication. For learning to occur, the student at any level must be involved as an active participant. This is most apparent in the trends in teaching reading. Pearson (1985) discusses the changing role for teachers and emphasizes

> ...a model in which the teacher assumes a more central and active role in providing instruction, a model in which practice is augmented by teacher modeling, guided practice and substantive feedback, a model in which the teacher and child move along that continuum of task responsibility... (p. 736)

Lytle and Botel (1988) address the importance of active involvement and move away from passive text-driven curriculum. Their framework is based on learning as meaning-making. Smith (1990) mentions collaboration and active learning in his discussion of trends in reading. Jongsma (1990) and Bayer (1990) discuss the benefits of collaborative learning. They recommend placing the student at the center with the teacher as guide.

In summary, there is a need to improve the quality of education in the classroom. Theory supports the practice of more active involvement in learning. It is essential for active involvement to take place at all levels of education. Teachers of future educators must not only talk about how to do this but also provide learning activities in their classes that practice these ideas. If change is to take place in elementary and secondary classes, the pedagogy must change in teacher education classrooms first.

APPLICATION—DO AS I SAY AND I DO

How can teachers of future educators provide more active involvement in learning for students? The following goals and practices have been utilized successfully in an undergraduate reading methods class. These goals are mentioned because they are the foundation from which active involvement is built.

Goals

In the undergraduate reading methods class that seeks the active involvement of students, the classroom is set up as a laboratory. The goals for this course are the responsibility of the students and teacher together and reflect the acronym READ.

R — *R*eading teacher educators have the *responsibility* for generating a passion for reading as well as for teaching the skills of reading. They need to realize that the students (future elementary and secondary classroom teachers) will be their own students' future role models, that they must stimulate a love of learning, and that they need to be good speakers, writers, and readers.

E — *Experiences* and *expectations* that bring all students to reach their potential must be part of every reading classroom.

A — Reading teacher educators need to *affect* a class climate that makes all students feel comfortable and successful.

D — *Demonstration* of and participation in strategies that actively involve students in their learning is a critical part of reading teacher education.

These goals are reflected in the teaching approaches, student interactions, and evaluations for the course. The instructor models the performance she expects from the students. Since students need to have clear objectives, they must be provided with a comprehensive syllabus as well as an overview for each class. Since lesson plans are required by most school administrators, students start the course by writing a lesson plan for a lesson on an effective study strategy for reading the course text that the instructor demonstrates. By observing students reading their texts in class, the instructor assesses their reading strategies. After the instructor models a second effective study technique, the students are assigned to collaborative groups in which they teach one another this new strategy. Cooperative learning groups critique the instructor's model lesson.

Since the instructor wants the students to draw on their future students' background and language, she actively involves the future teachers in learning activities. Though lecture may be more efficient, it is the least effective way to generate retention and enthusiasm for learning. Students in this undergraduate class learn through doing, teaching, discussing, and demonstrating. Every attempt is made to inspire the students to improve their ability to communicate. The instructor encourages students to love reading by spending time each class period reading aloud great children's literature. The classroom environment is set up so students have the opportunity to share their ideas. Thinking is encouraged, and students receive positive reinforcement for their ideas. Lessons allow students to appreciate theory, and every theory is applied in the classroom. Students are given the opportunity to participate in a variety of organizational settings: whole class, partnership, cooperative grouping, and individual teaching and learning.

Evaluation

The goals are reflected in the evaluation techniques for the course. Recognizing that the greatest retention occurs when students teach others or have immediate use of their learning, students in Packman's undergraduate Foundations of Reading course have evaluated projects that let them teach. These projects include the following:

1. Group project — Students have a choice of a cooperative learning group. The group members become the class teachers and demonstrate what they learned about a fundamental reading skill. Here is an opportunity for active involvement and hands-on learning.
2. Individual project — Students choose a topic on a critical area in reading that they research and develop a lesson plan to teach to the rest of the class. Here is an opportunity for direct application of their learning.
3. Students critique and modify a directed reading lesson from a basal for a specific group of children. Here is an opportunity for students to have immediate use of knowledge in a practical situation.
4. Students write responses to issues in reading education before, during, and after an issue is discussed in class. Active involvement occurs with students bringing their background knowledge to the course. These critical issues are presented in a supplement (Packman, 1989) to the course. Students write their responses in the supplement.
5. Students prepare three summaries of children's literature books. They choose one to present in class. The goal is to turn their peers on to that book and get them involved with children's literature.

Sample Teaching Techniques

1. During the first class, students list their goals for the course. They prioritize these goals and then present them to a group. Each group must collabo-

rate and develop a list that they share with the class. Local school district and reading association goals are presented and compared with the students' goals and experiences. The course goals are not given to the class; students develop their own.

2. Characteristics of a mature reader are discussed. The instructor then reads a story and has the class define maturity in reading. All interpretations are accepted, and students discover what affects meaning in reading.

3. Students are asked to recall their early preschool experiences. The instructor writes them on the board and students react to their early literacy knowledge. They compare and contrast a tape of an 18-month-old and a seventh grader responding to text. They get involved in predicting why the 18-month-old is excited about reading and the seventh grader is not. Students set up an emerging literacy environment that attempts to sustain the preschooler's enthusiasm throughout his educational career.

4. The following vocabulary lesson illustrates how to develop active involvement in teaching a reading skill:

The instructor brings grocery items to class. Each student chooses any word from a chosen grocery item. All words are listed on the board. Students are randomly assigned to a group that organizes and labels the list. This hands-on activity involves ownership (students choose the words on the list), understanding (they organize the list according to their definitions of the words), and background (they arrange words according to categories that reflect their language and content background). A lecture on vocabulary development would never generate as much learning or enthusiasm.

5. What stood out for you? Students' responses to this question provide the instructor with an assessment of what has been retained and what students believe are the significant ideas.

6. An overview of each class is written on the board. Students focus on the ideas and topics that will be considered and discussed. Students discuss what they already know about the topic and then relate this information to what has taken place during the class. Students constantly participate in the learning process.

CONCLUSION

Do as I say, not as I do. You can actively involve your students in learning. This paper describes the status quo in most classrooms. Although research shows that students retain more when they learn through discussion, hands-on experiences, and teaching others, classroom work at all levels of education tends to be passive. Lecture, reading, or answering teacher-generated questions are the primary modes of instruction. Teachers of future educators appear to be aware of the need for more active involvement in learning but are not practicing what they espouse. As reading teacher educators, we must do as we say and provide role models that our students can emulate.

REFERENCES

Bayer, A. S. (1990). *Collaborative apprenticeship learning: Language and thinking across the curriculum, K-12.* Mountain View, CA: Mayfield Publishing Company.

Cavazos, L. F. (1990). Report on student performance draws grim picture. *The Chronicle of Higher Education, 37* (5), p. A2.

Failure of teacher education (1990, October 1). *Newsweek,* pp. 58–60.

Hollingsworth, S. (1989). Learning to teach reading: Suggestions for preservice and inservice educators. *The Reading Teacher, 42* (9), 698–702.

Jongsma, K. S. (1990). Questions & answers: Collaborative learning. *The Reading Teacher, 43* (4), 346–347.

Kelly, P. R., & Farnan, N. (1990). Practicing what we teach in reading education programs. *The Reading Teacher, 33,*(4), 264–269.

Lytle, S. L., & Botel, M. (1988). *PCRP: Reading, writing, and talking across the curriculum.* The Pennsylvania Department of Education.

Morganthau, T. (1990, Fall/Winter). How to teach our kids. *Newsweek,* pp. 72–76.

Packman, L. (1989). *Foundation of reading supplement.* Unpublished manuscript. Glassboro State College, Glassboro, NJ.

Pearson, P. D. (1985). Changing the face of reading comprehension instruction. *The Reading Teacher, 38,* (8),724–737.

Sirotnik, K. A. (1983). What you see is what you get: Consistency, persistency, and mediocrity. *Harvard Educational Review, 53,* (1), 16–31.

Smith, C. B. (1990). ERIC/RCS: Trends in reading/literacy instruction. *The Reading Teacher, 43,* (9), 680–681.

Tyler, R. W. (1949). *Basic principles of curriculum and instruction.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Developing a Meaningful Early Field Experience for Reading Methods Courses

William Earl Smith
Ohio University

BACKGROUND

The idea of early field experiences for undergraduate teacher education students is not new. The importance of students getting into classrooms and working with children has been understood for years. However, critics of teacher education programs question the quality of this experience. It is no longer enough that students merely have some experience observing and perhaps working with children; prospective teachers need hands-on experiences that will better prepare them to teach children.

Ohio University's early field experience program, in place since 1980, requires each student to accumulate 118 hours working with children in classrooms during their junior and senior years. This program provides the type of training suggested by the Holmes Group report (1986) *Tomorrow's Teachers*: "During their work in classrooms, prospective teachers will be required to observe and evaluate a variety of teaching styles, including their own, and to present evidence of analytic skill in this area as part of their professional portfolio for advancement" (p. 65–66).

A search of the literature did not reveal any information regarding early field experience program effectiveness or the conditions and activities most conducive to optimum development of the elementary education student's skills as a reading teacher. Because of this seeming lack of information, it was believed that the program currently underway at Ohio University would provide an excellent setting in which to look at what type of early field experiences

were the most valuable for the prospective teacher. Among the many concerns that could be selected to investigate, the following five were selected:

1. How many teacher education students should be placed in a single classroom at any one time?
2. While in the classroom, what should be the ratio of teaching to observing for the teacher education student?
3. How long should each visit by the teacher education student to the classroom be?
4. Who should be responsible for developing the assignments that need to be completed by the teacher education student while he or she is in the classroom?
5. What activities are perceived as being the most profitable in preparing the teacher education student to teach reading?

This article is a description of some action research in which information relevant to these five questions was gathered and examined in an attempt to begin to generate possible answers.

Shortly after this study was conducted, the National Center for Education Information published the results of an extensive study of teachers' beliefs about teacher preparation programs. The report stated: "Far and away, teachers think the best way to learn all aspects of teaching is a combination of college courses on campus and field-based experiences" (Feistritzer, 1990, p. 33). If teachers' opinions are correct, then an examination of what happens in those field-based activities is certainly warranted.

PROCEDURE

A questionnaire was designed that could be used with three populations: (1) teacher education students currently involved in a reading methods early field experience, (2) current cooperating teachers, and (3) former students who had participated in the early field experience for reading methods classes. Gathering and interpreting information from these three populations had some problems. First, the populations are not mutually exclusive, since some of the cooperating teachers are also former students. To ensure that they would approach the questionnaire from the desired perspective, a different questionnaire was developed for the cooperating teachers. Second, group sizes are obviously quite different. There were far more graduates in the last six years than there are current reading methods students. Also, because one cooperating teacher could have as few as 1 university student or as many as 15, the population of cooperating teachers is even smaller. Locating areas of agreement among groups of such diverse sizes is problematic, as is drawing firm conclusions. However, it was believed that questionnaire data would provide a beginning point for the examination of the questions and direction for future questions and investigations.

By talking with current students and cooperating teachers and colleagues

at the university, areas of concern regarding the early field experience for reading were identified. The five questions listed above were common among interviewees. A number of specific questions were then formulated to serve as sample questions in these areas. A tentative questionnaire was written and used with two university reading methods classes. From this, a final questionnaire was developed to be used with the current and former students. A variation of the questionnaire was developed for the cooperating teachers.

Students currently enrolled in reading early field experience classes volunteered to fill out the questionnaire. These students had just completed their field experience obligations for the class. Of 68 students asked, 52 (76 percent) responded. Participating teachers who had university reading methods students in their classrooms at the time were also asked to fill out the questionnaire. In addition, questionnaires were handed out in a university graduate class to teachers who had previously had early field experience students. Of the 15 teachers asked, 14 (93 percent) returned completed questionnaires.

Finally, 1200 questionnaires were mailed to Ohio University elementary education students graduating since 1984. There was a return of 165 or 14 percent. Unfortunately, there is no way to eliminate from the 1200 those people who have never taught, who are not now teaching, or who teach now but are not teaching reading.

SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT FINDINGS

Table 1 summarizes the findings related to the number of teacher education students per classroom for early field experiences.

TABLE 1

Ideal Number of Education Students per Classroom for Early Field Experience

Item Response	Cooperating Teachers		Current Students		Former Students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1 student	1	(06)	4	(07)	87	(53)
3 students	11	(69)	33	(63)	44	(27)
4 or more students	4	(25)	15	(30)	34	(21)

Obviously, there is no agreement among groups. It would appear that one to three students can be effectively placed in a classroom at a time. Important variables that need to be considered with this question are who is doing the supervision (cooperating teacher or university supervisor, or both)?

How much time can be spent in supervision? The more time available to supervise the students, the greater the number of students who can be placed in different classrooms.

Table 2 reports figures indicating the percentage of time that different groups believed should be spent in actual teaching during early field experiences.

TABLE 2
Percentage of Total Time Spent Teaching

Item Response	Cooperating Teachers		Current Students		Former Students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
10%			7	(13)	15	(09)
11-20%			1	(02)	23	(14)
21-40%	1	(06)	13	(25)	25	(15)
4160%	1	(06)	2	(04)	25	(15)
61-80%	4	(25)	7	(13)	40	(24)
81-100%	10	(63)	22	(42)	37	(22)

Although former students were less demanding that time be spent actually teaching, it would appear that the majority of those in the three groups believed that more than half of the education students' time should be spent teaching children.

Information related to the length of each visit is provided in Table 3. Again, there is no clear consensus. Cooperating teachers and current students seemed to favor a visit that is 45–75 minutes long; former students seemed to favor slightly shorter visits (30–60 minutes). The proportion of cooperating teachers and current students who favored longer (90–120 minutes) visits suggests that some of those currently involved with the early field experiences believe that more time is needed per visit.

Informal conversations with cooperating teachers and students have shed some light on responses to this question. When education students spend their time observing and teaching a few unrelated lessons, the teachers tend to consider the education student a disruption to their schedule and consequently seem to favor the shorter visits because they "disrupt the class less." However, when there is more coordination between the classroom curriculum and the assignments made to the education student, there seems to be less of a feeling of intrusion; under these circumstances, cooperating teachers tend to favor longer visits.

TABLE 3
Length of Each Visit (In minutes)

Item Response	Cooperating Teachers		Current Students		Former Students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
15-30					12	(09)
31-45	1	(06)			27	(20)
46-60	7	(44)	6	(12)	50	(38)
61-75	4	(25)	20	(38)	2	(02)
76-90			4	(08)	17	(13)
91-105			14	(27)	1	01)
106-120	4	(25)	8	(15)	14	(11)
Over 121					9	(07)

Table 4 presents results related to the sources of teaching assignments for early field experience students. Cooperating teachers seemed to believe that the assignments should be coordinated by the teacher and the university supervisor. Current students seemed to prefer that the assignments come from the cooperating teachers, and former students seemed to be almost equally split between the university supervisor and coordination between both. Coordination between the cooperating teacher and the university supervisor may seem appropriate, but the education student can feel caught between them. Who wants what? Whom do I try to please? And when? When assignments are coming from the teacher, the education students can see relationships between the assignment and classroom activities. Also, students are more aware of expectations.

Question 5 is an attempt to begin to develop some insights into what types of activities are perceived as the most valuable in preparing prospective teachers. Current students and former students were asked to respond

TABLE 4
Source of Assignments

Item Response	Cooperating Teachers		Current Students		Former Students	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
From university	1	(06)			69	(42)
From cooperating teacher	3	(19)	15	(63)	33	(20)
Both	12	(75)	9	(37)	63	(38)

to a list of activities by stating (1) if they had participated in the activity and (2) how they would rate the value of that activity in preparing them to teach reading. Tables 5 and 6 report the percentage of those respondents participating in the activities who rated them as *poor, fair, good, excellent,* or *superior.*

TABLE 5
Most Meaningful Activities — Current Students

Activity	Poor		Fair		Good		Excellent		Superior	
	N	%*	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
•Traditional reading skills	2	(03)	10	(17)	28	(47)	17	(28)	3	(05)
•Basal readers	1	(25)	2	(50)	1	(25)				
•Whole language lessons	1	(03)	6	(15)	16	(40)	15	(38)	2	(05)
•Evaluate reading			1	(33)	1	(33)	1	(33)		
•Tutor individuals			2	(33)	4	(67)				
•Teach entire class					3	(66)	1	(20)	1	(20)
•Reading in content			2	(25)	3	(38)	2	(25)	1	(13)

*Percentages based on number of respondents who participated in this type of activity

Both current and former students believed it important to teach the word recognition, vocabulary comprehension, and study skills. These areas are represented on the tables under traditional reading skills. Former students thought it more important to teach basal reader lessons than did the current students. However, both groups thought that it was important to have opportunities to teach whole language lessons, represented on the questionnaire by the categories of whole language lessons, language experience lessons, reading in literature, and teaching big books. The former students found individual tutoring important, but current students did not. Those in both groups thought that teaching the entire class is an important experience. Students in both groups seemed to agree that the opportunity to teach reading in the content areas is also a good experience. When ratings are ranked for both groups of students, the most important activities appear to be (1) teaching whole language activities, (2) teaching the entire class,

TABLE 6
Most Meaningful Activities — Former Students

Activity	Poor		Fair		Good		Excellent		Superior	
	N	%*	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
•Traditional reading skills	8	(02)	71	(19)	153	(41)	124	(34)	14	(04)
•Basal readers	3	(03)	16	(19)	37	(44)	26	(31)	2	(02)
•Whole language lessons	3	(02)	21	(12)	70	(41)	64	(38)	11	(07)
•Evaluate reading	2	(03)	8	(11)	26	(37)	33	(46)	2	(03)
•Tutor individuals	4	(05)	14	(18)	33	(43)	24	(31)	3	(04)
•Teach entire class	2	(04)	8	(14)	21	(38)	21	(38)	4	(07)
•Reading in content			7	(14)	16	(32)	23	(46)	4	(08)

*Percentages based on number of respondents who participated in this type of activity

(3) evaluating students' reading, and (4) teaching the traditional reading skills.

Because they are currently involved with the reading curriculum, cooperating teachers were asked to list those activities that they believed were the most important for the education student during the early field experience. Analysis of their lists adds only one new area: teaching small groups. Of this group of teachers, 71 percent thought this an essential activity, making this the most highly rated area by this group. Only two other activities came close to it: teaching whole language activities and teaching basal readers, both chosen by 57 percent. Teaching whole language activities seems to be the only activity that is highly rated (i.e., among the top three activities) by all three groups. If the cooperating teachers' opinions are to be considered, the opportunity to teach small groups should be added to the list of four activities stated above. However, it is hard to imagine that education students would teach either whole language activities or traditional skills without teaching a small group of children.

DISCUSSION

In this discussion of the results, two important limitations must be considered: (1) because of contact with the current students and cooperating teachers, it was easier to ensure a higher rate of return from them than from

the former students and (2) there are extreme differences in the sample sizes from the three different subject pools. Thus, comparing results is difficult. Any interpretations, therefore, must be considered trends or indications, rather than strong inferences. However, the information from this study provides the beginnings for decision making and for further studies.

No matter whom you listen to (cooperating teachers, former students, or current students), it would appear that early field experiences should provide experience in at least the following areas: (1) teaching whole language activities; (2) teaching the entire class; and (3) teaching reading in the content areas. Additionally, cooperating teachers believed strongly that students should have experience working with small groups. These experiences should be in classrooms where no more than three education students are placed; these students should be given the opportunity to work with children approximately 80 percent of the time in visits lasting between 60 to 75 minutes.

There is no real agreement on who should make the assignments because students find it frustrating to try to coordinate the supervisors' assignments with those of the teachers, and consequently want all assignments to come from the cooperating teacher. Cooperating teachers also believe that there should be coordination of the assignments between themselves and the university supervisors.

Studies of the type reported here provide some of the information needed to improve early field experience classes, thereby improving the quality of teacher preparation. However, exploring reasons for teachers' opinions is equally important. Future studies of this type should strive to determine (1) the factors that have led teachers to hold the opinions they do and (2) how those factors can contribute to the improvement of education of children.

Teacher training programs have come under increasing criticism springing from the general discontent with the nation's schools. The Holmes Group (1989) strongly suggests that undergraduate programs be eliminated and education become a fifth-year graduate program. Texas recently passed a law prohibiting prospective teachers from taking more than 18 hours of education credit. Boston University's president, John Silber, has been quoted as saying that "the best thing that could happen to most schools of education would be closing them" (Leslie & Lewis, 1990, p. 58).

There are no easy solutions to problems in teacher education. State laws limiting the number of education hours a student must take, closing undergraduate programs, or increasing the entrance standards for education students cannot solve the problems facing teacher education programs. Prospective teachers need to be extensively involved with children in the field. However, spending more time doing things that are of little or no value will serve no purpose. Activities during this time should make a meaningful difference in developing future teachers.

REFERENCES

Feistritzer, C.E. (1990). *Profile of teachers in the U.S. — 1990.* Washington, DC: National Center for Education Information.

Holmes Group (1989). *Tomorrow's teachers.* East Lansing, MI: The Holmes Group, Inc.

Leslie, C., & Lewis, S. (1990, October 1). The failure of teacher ed. *Newsweek,* 58–60.

Perceptions of Preservice and Inservice Teachers Regarding Test-Taking Procedures and Test-Wiseness Programs

JERRY L. JOHNS
Northern Illinois University
SUSAN J. DAVIS
Queen Bee Elementary School

With the increase of testing in schools today, educators have become more interested in teaching test-taking skills to students. Test-taking strategies are taught so that students can become test-wise and use their knowledge of the characteristics and formats of the test and the testing situation to receive higher scores (Millman, Bishop, & Ebel, 1965). Increasing test-wiseness avoids bias against students who do poorly on tests and thus improves the validity of the test results by equalizing the differences in test-taking experiences (McPhail, 1981). Teaching test-wiseness, therefore, seems to be an accepted method to give every student a fair chance to achieve the best possible test score. Before beginning a test-wiseness program, however, several ethical questions should be considered.

Some of the ethical considerations of test-wiseness have been addressed by the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA) in its *Ethical Standards* (1981):

> The meaningfulness of test results used in personnel, guidance, and counseling functions generally depends on the examinee's unfamiliarity with the specific items on the test. Any prior coaching or dissemination of the test material can invalidate the test results. Therefore, test security is one of the professional obligations of the member. Conditions that produce most favorable test results should be made known to the examinee (Subsection 6, Section C).

This research was supported, in part, by a grant from the Department of Curriculum and Instruction and the College of Education at Northern Illinois University.

Brown (1982) drew two important inferences from this statement: (1) no material from actual tests should be used in test-wiseness programs and (2) test givers have an ethical obligation to share information that would optimize test performance.

The APGA guidelines do not address the importance of following standardized administration procedures. Tests are standardized so that the scores obtained by different individuals can be compared. Standardization implies uniform administration procedures: the exact materials to be used, time limits, oral instructions, and preliminary demonstrations as well as other aspects unique to a particular test (Anastasi, 1988).

Ethical considerations are integral in the development and use of test-wiseness programs, but what do preservice and inservice teachers think about various aspects of test-wiseness? A survey that dealt with test taking and some of the ethical issues inherent in test-wiseness programs was developed and given to preservice and inservice teachers.

METHOD

A total of 133 subjects participated in the study: 62 preservice teachers and 71 inservice teachers. The 62 preservice teachers were enrolled at a large midwestern university. None of these individuals had teaching experience on a contractual basis. With two exceptions, all preservice teachers were sophomores or juniors who were pursuing a bachelor's degree in education.

The 71 inservice teachers were either graduate students at a large midwestern university or attendees at a reading conference in the Chicago area. Two-thirds of this group was approximately evenly distributed among primary, intermediate, and reading or learning disabilities teachers. About one-third of the group was composed of secondary teachers. Approximately 60 percent of the teachers held a master's degree or a master's degree plus additional hours. In terms of teaching experience, all had taught more than one year. More than half of the group had more than 10 years of experience.

An 11 item survey was developed and given to the preservice and inservice teachers. The survey included statements about various aspects of test taking and test-wiseness. Subjects circled the response that most closely matched their feelings about each statement: strongly agree, agree, undecided or uncertain, disagree, and strongly disagree.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The questions in the survey were classified into three broad categories: general test-taking considerations, standardized test-taking procedures, and test-wiseness. The results of the survey within each category are presented.

General Test-taking Considerations

Table 1 contains the results to questionnaire items that sought to determine whether or not preservice and inservice teachers agreed that students should

TABLE 1
Questionnaire Results for General Test-Taking Considerations

Survey Items	Group	Percentage of Responses*				
		SA	A	U	D	SD
1. Students should be informed a few days in advance that they will be taking a test.	Inservice	77	15	3	3	1
	Preservice	73	21	3	3	0
2. Test purposes or intents should be explained to students before the testing date.	Inservice	83	15	0	1	0
	Preservice	66	31	2	2	0

* Strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, strongly disagree

be informed that they would be taking a test and whether or not test purposes should be explained. More than 90 percent of both groups responded with strongly agree or agree on these two survey items. Such answers coincide with Anderson and Armbruster's (1984) work on studying, which suggests that students be informed of the criterion task they are to perform. To study for a test, students need to be informed of the purpose of the test that they will be taking. Some testing situations, such as psychological testing, in fact, require informed consent: the test-taker must be made aware of the purposes of the test, the kind of data that are being sought, and the use that will be made of the test scores (Anastasi, 1988). When classroom tests or standardized tests are given, informed consent is not required, but the American Psychological Association (1985) recommends that students be informed about the testing process. The participants in this study agreed that they should inform their students in advance that they would be taking a test and should explain the test's purposes or intent.

Standardized Test-taking Procedures

Three statements were used to determine the degree to which the two groups sampled understood standardized testing procedures (see Table 2). In general, responses to these survey items indicate that the two groups had diverse opinions about what standardization means.

There was a wide variety of responses to survey item 3. Approximately 40 percent of the inservice and preservice teachers either strongly agreed or agreed that teacher-made and standardized tests should be given in the same manner. Approximately one-third of each group was undecided, and 31 percent of the inservice teachers and 24 percent of the preservice teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed.

For survey item 4, there was also considerable variance of responses. More than 75 percent of the inservice teachers and more than 50 percent of the preservice teachers agreed or strongly agreed that directions for standardized tests should be read directly from the teacher's manual. More than 20 percent of the

TABLE 2
Questionnaire Results for Standardized Test-taking Procedures

Survey Items	Group	Percentage of Responses					
		SA	A	U	D	SD	O*
3. Standardized tests should be given in the same manner as teacher-made tests.	Inservice	14	24	28	24	7	3
	Preservice	8	31	37	24	0	0
4. Teachers should read the directions of standardized tests directly out of the teacher's manual.	Inservice	46	32	10	10	1	0
	Preservice	15	40	18	26	2	0
5. Teachers should give special assistance to poor readers by reading the standardized test items aloud.	Inservice	11	24	24	21	18	1
	Preservice	19	35	26	16	4	0

* Omit

inservice teachers and nearly half of the preservice teachers were undecided or disagreed.

On item 5, 35 percent of the inservice teachers and 54 percent of the preservice teachers agreed or strongly agreed that they should assist poor readers by reading the standardized test items aloud. Approximately a quarter of each group was undecided. About 40 percent of the inservice teachers and 20 percent of the preservice teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed.

According to standardization procedures, standardized tests should not be given in the same manner as teacher-made tests; teachers should read the directions from the teacher's manual and should not give special assistance to poor readers. Standardized tests are normed so that an individual score on the test can be interpreted according to the test's norms. A test's validity depends, in part, on administration procedures that follow the standardization procedure. Standardization procedures include time limits, oral instructions, preliminary demonstrations, ways to handle questions from test-takers, and other details of the testing situation (Anastasi, 1988).

Test-wiseness

Table 3 contains the results to questionnaire items related to test-wiseness. Survey items 6 and 7 were designed to determine the sample's opinions about teaching test-taking skills, and the last four items were designed to determine whether the two groups understood the difference between aspects of teaching test-wiseness and teaching to the test, or coaching.

More than 90 percent of the inservice teachers believed that teaching test-wiseness is ethical and is a productive use of class time. Preservice teachers were

TABLE 3
Questionnaire Results for Test-Wiseness

		Percentage of Responses					
Survey Items	Group	SA	A	U	D	SD	O*
6. It is ethical to teach test-wiseness skills in order to improve test scores.	Inservice	54	37	7	1	0	1
	Preservice	29	48	16	3	3	0
7. Using class time to teach test taking skills can be productive for students.	Inservice	51	42	7	0	0	0
	Preservice	29	63	6	2	0	0
8. Students should become familiar with the mechanics of a standardized achievement test before actual testing begins through the use of practice exercises.	Inservice	80	17	0	0	1	1
	Preservice	45	48	6	0	0	0
9. Teaching students how test questions are constructed is a legitimate role of the teacher.	Inservice	38	46	8	4	3	0
	Preservice	23	42	26	6	2	2
10. Test-wiseness programs should include material from the actual tests to be taken by students.	Inservice	6	17	10	39	28	0
	Preservice	13	24	27	34	2	0
11. Students should be instructed in the subject matter of specific standardized tests.	Inservice	15	42	15	17	8	2
	Preservice	24	34	29	11	2	0

* Omit

a bit less certain about teaching test-wiseness skills (22 percent were uncertain or disagreed). According to the *Ethical Standards* (1981) of the APGA, it is indeed ethical to teach test-wiseness. In an interpretation of the APGA *Ethical Standards*, Brown (1982) argued that teachers are obliged to teach students how they can perform most favorably on tests.

Test-wiseness programs have been productive for students. In a meta-analysis of 24 studies conducted in natural settings, Samson (1985) found that, on average, students who participated in training for test-taking skills showed signs of improvements on achievement tests. Test-wiseness skills, therefore, are beneficial. How did the sample of inservice and preservice teachers react to various ethical aspects of test-wiseness programs?

Survey items 8 and 9 concerned practice exercises for standardized tests and teaching students how test questions are constructed. More than 90 percent of both inservice and preservice teachers agreed or strongly agreed

with using practice items to promote familiarization with standardized test formats. Approximately two-thirds of the preservice teachers and 84 percent of the inservice teachers agreed or strongly agreed that teachers have a legitimate role in teaching students how test questions are constructed. About a quarter of the preservice teachers were uncertain, and less than 10 percent of both groups disagreed with teaching students how test questions are constructed.

The responses to items 10 and 11 varied considerably between the two groups. Most (67 percent) of the inservice teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed that actual material from the tests should be included in test-wiseness programs. More than 20 percent of the inservice teachers and nearly 40 percent of the preservice teachers, however, agreed with including actual test material. Slightly more than a quarter of the preservice teachers were undecided. Survey item 11 concerned instruction in the subject matter of a specific standardized test. Among the inservice teachers, 57 percent agreed, 15 percent were undecided, and 25 percent disagreed. Of the preservice teachers, 58 percent agreed, 29 percent were undecided, and 13 percent disagreed.

According to the APGA *Ethical Standards* (1981), any dissemination of test materials can invalidate test results. Anastasi (1988) agrees that material from the actual tests should not be given to students before the test. However, becoming familiar with the mechanics of the test does not constitute giving test questions. Increasing an understanding of test mechanics is usually considered enhancing a type of test-wiseness.

A larger ethical issue, however, is whether or not students should be instructed in the subject matter of standardized tests that is not included in the curriculum. Ritter and Idol-Maestras (1986) differentiate between test-wiseness and coaching. Coaching refers to instruction in the domain being measured, whereas instruction in test-wiseness is teaching skills that are applicable across many content areas. Tests are intended to assess a broad domain of knowledge of which test questions are merely samples. Coaching may increase test scores, but these scores would not accurately reflect student achievement. When students are taught material from a test, their broad domain of knowledge is not increased, and the test scores are not valid.

To summarize, the general pattern of the responses on the survey for inservice teachers and preservice teachers was similar for general test-taking considerations and some aspects of teaching test-wiseness. The two groups did not agree, however, with the general literature on standardized test-taking procedures or appropriate, ethical aspects of test-wiseness programs.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It appears that both preservice and inservice teachers could profit from more knowledge about standardized administration procedures and the dif-

ferences between standardized tests and teacher-made tests. To be more specific, we are concerned that more than 20 percent of the inservice teachers and nearly 50 percent of the preservice teachers were not certain that directions for standardized tests should be read verbatim. We were also surprised to learn that more than a third of the inservice teachers and more than half of the preservice teachers apparently thought it was appropriate to assist poor readers by reading standardized test items aloud. Based on these findings, we recommend that reading methods courses, diagnostic reading courses, and other courses in which standardized tests are considered:

1. Give ample attention to the importance of following standardized administration procedures.
2. Devote time to a discussion of the differences between standardized tests and teacher-made tests.
3. Discuss why it is inappropriate to assist poor readers by reading standardized test items aloud unless such directions are stated in the manual.

Inservice teachers also need to strengthen their knowledge in the above areas. We therefore recommend staff development sessions to review the standardization procedures given in the test manuals that are part of the school's regular assessment program. Such sessions might be best conducted near the time the tests are to be given.

Both inservice teachers and preservice teachers agree that it is ethical to use class time to teach test-wiseness strategies. We believe that both groups of teachers, nevertheless, need to better understand the differences between teaching test-taking strategies and teaching to the test. We are dismayed that about one-third of the inservice teachers and nearly two-thirds of the preservice teachers (see item 10 in Table 3) either agreed with or were uncertain about including actual material from tests in test-wiseness programs.

Item 11 from Table 3 also raises a concern; however, it is possible that the item was not stated clearly. Our intent was to distinguish between teaching to the test and teaching the ongoing curriculum. Teaching test items is a clear violation of ethical standards, as is teaching the subject matter of standardized tests, unless the subject matter is part of the ongoing curriculum.

These differences need to be explained in preservice and inservice programs. Test-wiseness programs are intended to increase the validity of tests. Test-wiseness is generally considered to include the following strategies: use of time, error avoidance, guessing, deductive reasoning, answering analogies, and answering multiple-choice questions (Ritter & Idol-Maestras, 1986). Since the degree of test-wiseness differs among students, tests can become more valid if all students are taught general and specific test-wiseness strategies. However, to the extent that our findings can be generalized, there is also a need for some basic knowledge about standardized testing procedures and ethical considerations in test-wiseness programs for both preservice teachers and inservice teachers.

REFERENCES

American Personnel and Guidance Association. (1981). *Ethical standards.* Falls Church, VA: APGA.

American Psychological Association (Ethics Committee). (1985). Rules and procedures. *American Psychologist, 40,* 685–694.

Anastasi, A. (1988). *Psychological testing* (6th ed.). New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Anderson, T., & Armbruster, B. (1984). Studying. In P. D. Pearson (Ed.), *Handbook of reading research* (pp. 657–680). New York: Longman.

Brown, D. (1982). Increasing test-wiseness in children. *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 16,* 180–196.

McPhail, I. P. (1981). Why teach test-wiseness? *Journal of Reading, 25,* 32–38.

Millman, J., Bishop, C., & Ebel, R. (1965). An analysis of test-wiseness. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 25,* 707–727.

Ritter, S., & Idol-Maestas, L. (1986). Teaching middle school students to use a test-taking strategy. *Journal of Educational Research, 79,* 350–357.

Samson, G. (1985). Effects of training in test-taking skills on achievement test performance: A quantitative synthesis. *Journal of Educational Research, 78,* 261–266.

Whole Language Collaboration Project: Three Case Studies to Represent Change

GRACE M. SHEPPERSON
ROBERT J. NISTLER
University of North Texas

The purpose of this paper is to describe the impact of the initial phase of a long-term inservice program aimed at restructuring one elementary school's literacy program. It will focus on observed changes that occurred within three teachers—a representative sample of all participants—who became active participants in staff development sessions designed around effective change principles.

Fannin Elementary School in Grand Prairie, Texas is a multiethnic, urban elementary school situated in a neighborhood changing from "lower middle" to "low" socioeconomic status. At least half of the population is non-English speaking and is comprised of first-generation immigrants predominantly from areas of Latin America and Mexico. Nearly 70 percent of the children enrolled in the school qualify for free or reduced lunch. A majority of the students in this school can be considered "at risk."

Urban schools are increasingly faced with serious problems in literacy instruction. During the past two years, staff members had become aware of the inadequacy of traditional skill-based approaches to reading instruction for meeting the needs of students at Fannin. For this reason, the principal and a majority of school personnel were eager to explore proactive measures to provide effective literacy instruction to this at-risk population. Staff members at Fannin were in agreement: Adopting a whole language philosophy toward literacy instruction, schoolwide, held promise for eventual success.

This project was funded by a Research Initiation Grant from the University of North Texas.

At the principal's request, two university researchers visited Fannin to discuss options for addressing staff concerns regarding literacy instruction. As a result of this consultation, the Whole Language Collaboration Project was established to effect educational change. In December 1989, this study of learning language, teaching, and curriculum was initiated.

METHOD

The study was designed to address three research questions: What levels of concerns are raised by teachers in the areas of "self," "task," and "impact"? What responses do these concerns elicit from university researchers and other participants? What changes occurred among participants during their involvement in the initial phase of this project? Data sources included audiotapes of weekly inservices, teacher journals, participant responses to questionnaires, field notes of classroom observations, and collaborative interactions with teachers.

From December 13, 1989 through May 3, 1990, fourteen 45-to 60-minute inservice sessions were conducted with researchers, 23 teachers, and the school principal for the following purposes: (1) to identify what teachers and administrators did currently to promote literacy in their school; (2) to identify what whole language teachers do to promote literacy among students; (3) to identify aspects of whole language literacy instruction to explore and put into practice in the school; (4) to provide in-depth study/discussion groups to strengthen each member's knowledge of the aspects of whole language, so that individual, grade-level, and whole school goals could be set; and (5) to establish collegial relations among university, district, and school personnel. Teacher/staff participation was voluntary throughout the entire project. In addition to weekly inservice sessions, the university researchers spent two half-days per week observing in classrooms to strengthen relations and to learn about what went on in each teacher's classroom.

Data Analysis

The constant comparative method (Glaser, 1978) was employed to develop a theory about how collaborative efforts between university and school researchers affected change. Key points and recurring events were used to develop categories that described change in the participants. Additional incidents and evidence of these categories were searched for and described. The information and relationships obtained from the categories were used to develop a theory about the change factors involved in this collaborative project. Findings are reported through three case studies. They represent change that occurred in teachers initially perceived as traditional, average, and expert in whole language literacy instruction.

Portrait of Doris: Traditional

Doris, an older woman, might be considered one of the more traditional teachers at Fannin Elementary. On their first visit to her second grade classroom, university researchers noticed an abundance of word cards around the room. They were grouped according to beginning sounds. The students were reading along in their basal readers with Doris. She stopped periodically, and students provided missing words. One child was observed completing a worksheet during the group reading. Doris wandered around the room during this time with her teacher's manual. There were many commercially produced charts on the walls of the room. There was some work on one bulletin board produced by students that consisted of dittos of bears that students had colored. There was no print on these dittos.

Portrait of Jackie: Average

Jackie is a teacher familiar with whole language, "having learned about it in college years before." However, Jackie never fully implemented what she believed to be a whole language approach because of being "swallowed up by the enormous task of teaching itself." Early observations of Jackie during inservice sessions suggested she was a quiet, almost "sleepy" teacher who appeared, in a sense, to be very average. During their initial visit to Jackie's classroom, university researchers expected to confirm their early impressions. They noted that the walls were bereft of any student work, some library books were visible, there was a reading corner, and some areas were cluttered with phone books and reference books. It appeared that direct instruction occurred in a disorganized manner. However, as more time was spent in this classroom, it was discovered that initial impressions were inconsistent with what was actually observed. The room was filled with activity as students, in varying stages of activities, worked individually, in pairs, or small groups. Jackie exhibited a quiet manner moving around the room, stopping to talk to students, checking on their progress.

Portrait of Jean: Expert

Last year, Jean was a first-year second grade, bilingual teacher. She had been trained solely in whole language literacy instruction. When she began the year at Fannin, she had no idea how to read a basal reader teacher's manual. Samples of published children's writing covered the walls both inside and outside her classroom. Discussion groups, paired reading of big books, an area designated for the author's chair, and numerous experience story charts were indicators of a child-centered, literacy-rich classroom. During the university researchers' first visit to her classroom, Jean alternated among reading aloud, conferencing with individual students or small groups, and facilitating oral discussion related to literature currently under study. Within this noisy classroom, children were involved in purposeful language activities.

FINDINGS

Researchers have identified factors associated with change in school programs (Oakes, Hare, & Sirotnik, 1986; Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin & Hall, 1987; Henke, 1988). The university researchers were aware of these factors and designed inservices and conducted individual and small group conferences that modeled these principles. In their journals, essays, concern surveys, and conversations, the voices of teachers, as represented by Doris, Jackie, and Jean, confirmed the efficacy of the following change factors.

Change Is a Process, not an Event

Those who do not understand the complexities of change tend to equate it with handing over a new program, an event. Instead, change must be viewed as a process occurring over time, usually a period of several years. Initially, teachers involved in the Whole Language Collaboration Project expected to become whole language teachers in a short period of time. The university researchers consistently emphasized that lasting change occurs gradually. The following comments represent teachers' evolving perceptions of what change involves:

It was comforting to Doris when she realized whole language as a way of teaching could not, would not happen overnight. It is a step-by-step process to be accomplished over a long period of time as the teacher is comfortable and ready for change. (Doris, 8-90)

I was thinking about how important it is to keep learning and restructuring what we need to know and what we already know. (Jackie, 3-90)

At the beginning of the project the teachers were a little hostile.... It took time and patience for everyone to become comfortable with the "whole idea." The communication level increased between teachers and administrators at Fannin because they're interested in trying something new....There was lots of sharing and exchange of ideas. Within months Fannin started to change slowly. (Jean, 8-90)

Change Is a Highly Personal Experience

Individuals altering their instructional philosophies differ in their reactions to the change process. University researchers routinely documented each participant's concerns. Consequently, ongoing interactions could better support individual development. The comments of Doris, Jackie, and Jean represent the variety of needs expressed by the Fannin staff.

I am not yet comfortable with really "knowing what and the how of whole language." Even yet I wonder if I am doing it correctly. I'm learning there is no really right or wrong way. I'm wondering if the writing is not really the most important part of whole language. I hesitate because I wonder if they [students] will get as much vocabulary from their own experiences/imaginations that they would get from the basal. Spelling is another area of concern. Our basal in spelling is grouped according to like letter groups. How much time would it take to prepare our own spelling lists? The tremendous time it takes to prepare and implement something from scratch makes me fearful. (Doris, 3-90)

Jackie goes into this school year feeling both excited and overwhelmed with the enormity of her expectations she has for herself. She knows that with time, in the setting and help she has, that whole language teaching will be possible. (Jackie, 8-90)

Ever since we started the program or inservice (Whole Language Collaboration Project), I felt I wasn't alone anymore. Sometimes I still feel isolated because I can't share my feelings and ideas like I want. For the past two months I have felt so much more confident about Language Experience and Whole Language, about what I'm doing. (Jean, 3-90)

Change Involves Developmental Growth

Individuals involved in change exhibit different feelings, skills, and attitudes toward the innovation as they become better acquainted with the new information. In their Stages of Concern Survey, Hord et al. (1987) have provided a means to document the evolving concerns of participants in change programs. Results of this survey yield a profile that illustrates concerns in three major areas: self, task and impact.

According to Hord et al. (1987), "When a change effort is in its early stages, teachers are very likely to have 'self-concerns.' They will want to know more about the innovation [whole language], what it is and how it is similar to and different from what they are already doing" (p. 31). Such concerns dictate the need to "...help teachers see how the innovation relates to their current practices, both in regard to similarities and differences" (p. 44).

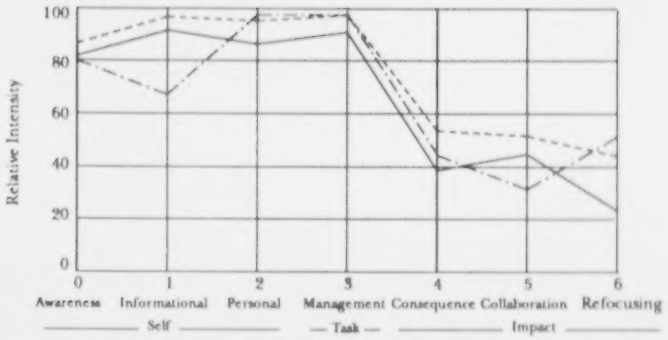
Task concerns tend to become more intense as participants begin to implement the innovation. Examples of such concerns include use of time, classroom management, and instructional materials. When participants become comfortable with an innovation, concerns shift to *impact* on students, relations with colleagues and administration, and improving the effectiveness of the program.

The Stages of Concern Survey was administered to the participants in this study on three separate occasions: January, March, and August. Survey profiles of Doris, Jackie, and Jean are illustrated in Figure 1.

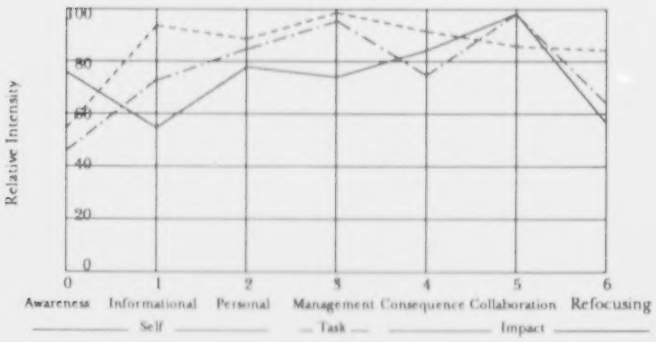
Doris' profile is representative of a participant interested in changing theory and practice, yet lacking a knowledge base regarding whole language literacy instruction. Self and task concerns were consistently high at each administration of the survey. In contrast, impact concerns were much lower. These results could be expected when a traditional teacher, such as Doris, is faced with a fundamental shift in pedagogy.

Jackie's profile is typical of one possessing knowledge regarding whole language literacy instruction but unable to translate this theory into practice. At each administration of the survey, high levels of concerns were evident in the three areas of self, task and impact. Jackie's awareness of theory possibly influenced her high impact concerns, while her inability to translate this theory

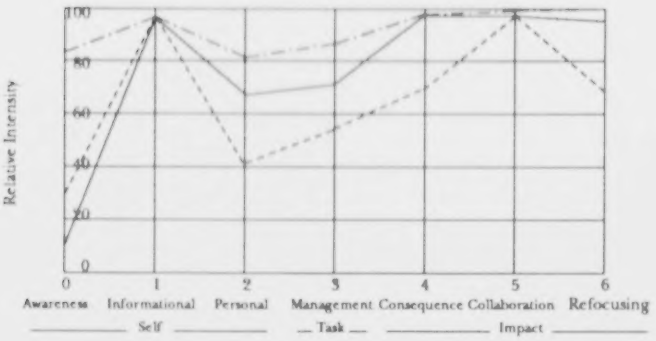
Profile for Doris



Profile for Jackie



Profile for Jean



——————— designates 1/90 administration
- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - designates 3/90 administration
—·—·—·—·—·—·— designates 8/90 administration

into practice may have contributed to her high levels of concern in the areas of self and task.

Jean's profile illustrates a teacher who is translating whole language theory into practice. Self and impact concerns remained consistently high throughout all three administrations of the survey, whereas task concerns alternately decreased and increased. Jean, a first-year teacher, appeared to become increasingly comfortable with translating her theory into practice as her initial year of teaching progressed. However, increased concerns, evidenced in the August results of her survey, may have been due to her limited teaching experience. All concerns increased as she began her second year.

Change Is Best Understood as It Directly Affects Classroom Practice, Students, and Preparation Time

According to Hord et al. (1987), "Teachers, and others, will naturally relate to change or improvement in terms of what it will mean to them or how it will affect their current classroom practice" (p. 45). Fannin teachers frequently raised issues regarding changes in students' attitudes and behaviors, as well as the preparation time involved in implementing whole language. University researchers worked with teachers through individual and small group conferences to alleviate these concerns. Doris, Jackie, and Jean reflected on their concerns in the following journal excerpts:

I have found with *The Velveteen Rabbit* that I'm not covering the material in one week and I'm really not feeling guilty this week. We're going into the second week with the skills and with whole language, why should we cover one story in 3 days or one story in 1 week. No one says, I shouldn't have to. No one says you have to at all. See, that was one thing that I hesitated [about] because I felt like I was getting behind. It just takes too long....I think it's been hard for me to get away from the basal as far as leaving the skills. But, just this week, I've gone over with *The Velveteen Rabbit* and I've taken the skills from the basal and tried to use it in a way that came from *The Velveteen Rabbit*...in a different way than just a worksheet. (Doris, 3-90)

Last year was very chaotic and she [Jackie] tried to implement some whole language in her room without sufficient time to prepare or materials to use. The one glimmer of hope for her was that the students had really enjoyed the novels last year and that even if they had learned nothing else in the mess language arts had become, they found out that they liked to read and what books can be like. (Jackie, 8-90)

It [positive feedback from parents attending back-to-school open house] really made me feel good about teaching, because I was like, am I doing the wrong thing, am I really teaching them? (Jean, 2-90)

The teachers from K-2 were very anxious, excited and eager to find out more about the whole language approach. But there was always the question, "Am I doing the right thing?" (Jean, 8-90)

DISCUSSION

The Whole Language Collaboration Project was carefully designed to facilitate change in literacy instruction at Fannin Elementary School. Preliminary findings shared in these three representative cases demonstrate the individual nature of the change process. The cases were purposefully selected to represent the mid- and end-points along a continuum depicting individual philosophies toward literacy instruction. Other participants in this project would be interspersed along this continuum.

It is apparent that change is occurring at Fannin. The university researchers were aware of the importance of the following requisite behaviors in facilitating change: committing time to the project, meeting individual needs, and building trust among participants. Time commitment required one and one-half days per week in the school setting. During that time, university researchers made weekly classroom visits, were available for individual and small group consultation, and conducted weekly scheduled inservices.

Individual needs were addressed through spontaneous conversations in addition to scheduled conferences. Unscheduled conferences, lasting only several minutes, tended to address immediate classroom concerns. In contrast, scheduled conferences, lasting 45 minutes to an hour, were more pedagogical in nature. Teachers arrived at these conferences with notebooks and prepared questions. Access to the university researchers was facilitated by the time they spent on the Fannin campus.

Building trust among participants was the foundation of this change effort. Interactions with teachers were consciously planned to contribute to an ever-increasing level of trust. Teachers maintained control of their (1) classrooms, (2) interactions with the university researchers, and (3) continued participation in this project. Gradually, teachers came to accept the university researchers as part of the Fannin community.

REFERENCES

Glaser, B.G. (1978). *Theoretical sensitivity.* Mill Valley, CA: The Sociological Press.

Henke, L. (1988). Beyond basal reading: A district's commitment to change. *The New Advocate, 1,* 42–51.

Hord, S.M., Rutherford, W.L., Huling-Austin, L., & Hall, G. (1987). *Taking charge of change.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Oakes, J., Hare, S., & Sirotnik, K. (1986). Collaborative inquiry: A congenial paradigm in a cantankerous world. *Teachers College Record, 87,* 545–561.

Whole Language and Changing Language Arts Instruction: A National Survey

Patricia K. Smith
Steven D. Rinehart
Karen F. Thomas
West Virginia University

The whole language movement that has been sweeping the nation has created many new challenges and problems. The prevailing trend is to jump on the bandwagon and use whole language instruction even though a great deal of what teachers do reflects misunderstandings of the nature of whole language. Although the concept of whole language differs among researchers (DeStefano, 1981), the principles underlying whole language reflect effective language instruction.

What is whole language? According to Stoodt (1988), whole language is the simultaneous, integrated teaching of reading, writing, speaking, and listening within a context that is meaningful to the language learner. Salinger (1988) refers to whole language as the integration of reading and writing with additional emphasis on listening and speaking skills. Other proponents of whole language think of it more as a philosophy than as a specific methodology (Goodman, 1986; Stahl & Miller, 1989).

Teachers who understand whole language instruction realize that it is a unique and promising framework for developing learner-based rather than text- or teacher-based classroom instruction. Many instructional procedures, such as the language experience approach, individualized reading, shared reading, and reading stories to children are aspects of both whole language and traditional language arts instruction. Whole language instruction provides purposeful language experiences across the curriculum, immerses children in a print-filled environment, and gives many meaningful opportunities for them to listen, speak, read, and write daily.

The concept of whole language instruction appears to be highly theoretical to many teachers and presents a challenging alternative to conventional

This study was funded in part by the West Virginia University Benedum Project.

language arts and reading programs that are now entrenched in the United States (Clark, 1987). Given the whole language thrust in today's reading research, practice, and theory, the purpose of this study was to determine the nature of change in language arts instruction in elementary schools at the national level.

METHOD

A three-page written survey was mailed to a randomly selected sample of elementary schools nationwide with a request that the questionnaire be completed by a classroom or reading teacher. To obtain information concerning their background and school environment, the questionnaire first asked the teachers to indicate their sex, their years of educational experience, the setting of their schools, the number of classrooms and grades within their schools, and the average number of students assigned to the classrooms in their schools. Second, specific information requested included (1) the current practice of language arts instruction, (2) how the language arts program was developed, (3) whether or not whole language instruction has been instituted in their schools, (4) if or how it is being considered, (5) the length of time it has been implemented, (6) what the language arts instruction involves, (7) the methods of teaching language arts, and (8) satisfaction with the total language arts program. At the conclusion of the survey, teachers were given the opportunity to add general comments. Percentages reported in the study were based on the total number of responses to individual questions.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

An average of 10 schools per state, a total of 491 schools, responded to the survey. Of the respondents, 70 percent were female and 30 percent were male. The years of experience in education ranged from less than 1 year to 41 years, with an average of 19 years. Most of the schools were located in rural areas (44 percent), followed by suburban (32 percent) and urban (24 percent). Seventeen different configurations of school organizations were reported with K-6 and K-5 being prevalent. Seventy-seven percent of the schools had self-contained classrooms, 7 percent were departmentalized, and 16 percent encompassed both. Schools were relatively large with 38 percent having 22 or more rooms and an average of 2.5 classes per grade level. Seventy-nine percent of the schools reported a total enrollment of approximately 300 students with 21 to 30 students per classroom.

Whole Language Program

The first substantive question asked "Has a whole language program been instituted throughout your school?" Of 491 teachers, 140 (29 percent) stated that relatively new whole language programs have been instituted in their

schools. Seventy-five (53 percent) of those reporting a whole language program in their schools indicated that the programs had been implemented for 1–2 years, 26 percent for 3–4 years, 10 percent for 5–6 years, 4 percent for 7–8 years, and 1 percent for 9–10 years. Ninety-four percent of the teachers reported that they were involved in establishing the initial program with 75 percent indicating that changes are still needed in their current whole language program.

Of the 349 teachers who reported that whole language instruction had not been instituted in their schools, 53 percent reported that pilot programs were being planned, and 47 percent stated that pilot programs were currently underway within their schools or school systems.

Inservice programs to help teachers implement whole language instruction were reported by 90 percent of the respondents. Four different types of inservice programs were mentioned: (1) theoretical background on the value of whole language, (2) knowledge base involving whole language components, (3) strategies or activities for incorporating whole language, and (4) classroom management techniques of a whole language program. Whole language practitioners reported 100 percent involvement in practical strategies or activities for incorporating whole language, as well as classroom management techniques of a whole language program. In contrast, 35 percent reported inservices on the theoretical background on the value of whole language, 19 percent indicated a knowledge base dealing with whole language components.

Ninety percent of the whole language teachers reported that listening, oral expression, writing, spelling, handwriting, grammar, punctuation/capitalization, and functional and recreational reading were emphasized in their whole language programs. All teachers (100 percent) believed that writing was the most important component, followed by functional and recreational reading, listening, and oral expression (96 percent each). Grammar (89 percent) and spelling (85 percent) each received less support. Handwriting (78 percent) appeared to be the least important area.

Language Arts Instruction

For the survey question "Do you follow a curriculum guide which governs reading and language arts instruction?" 85 percent of the teachers responded yes. Consequently, responses to the remaining items may have reflected the structure and design of the teachers' curriculum guides. For each of the language components included on the questionnaire, the teachers were to indicate whether the components of reading, writing, spelling, handwriting, grammar, oral communication, and listening were taught as separate subjects, interrelated to the other components, or integrated with content area subjects.

Reading. Although more than two-thirds of the teachers reported that

reading was primarily taught as a separate subject, they indicated that it was interrelated with the other language arts. Only half, however, reported integrating reading with the content areas. Approximately three-fourths taught reading using a basal series (75 percent) or a basal series combined with other approaches (72 percent). Receiving the least attention were literature-based (48 percent) and language experience (42 percent) approaches to teaching reading.

Writing. Although one-third of the teachers reported approaching the writing process as a separate subject, 78 percent of the teachers responded that writing was interrelated with other language arts and integrated with content areas.

Spelling. Because more than 80 percent of the schools adopted a spelling textbook, spelling instruction appeared to be text driven. Fifty-nine percent of the teachers stated that they relate spelling to other language arts. Forty-three percent reported integrating spelling with content areas.

Handwriting. Two-thirds of the responding schools (66 percent) reported using a handwriting workbook. Respondents reported that handwriting instruction was interrelated to other language arts (66 percent). Only 45 percent indicated integrating handwriting with content area subjects.

Grammar. More than two-thirds of the teachers (68 percent) reported teaching grammar as a separate subject using a textbook. Most reported that they teach and emphasize grammar in the other language arts (78 percent). However, less than half (38 percent) integrated grammar and content areas.

Oral Communication. Oral communication received the least amount of attention in responding schools. Sixteen percent of the respondents reported that oral communication skills were not taught, and 11 percent stated that these skills were taught as a separate subject. An average of 70 percent of the teachers indicated that they interrelate and implement these skills as they teach other language arts and content area subjects.

Listening. Listening skills also received little attention. Eighteen percent of the respondents reported teaching listening as a separate subject, and 10 percent reported not teaching listening skills at all. Eighty percent of the teachers stressed listening skills in conjunction with other language arts and the content areas.

Total Language Program

In the final question of the questionnaire "Are you satisfied with your total reading program?" a majority of teachers (55 percent) indicated they were only somewhat satisfied. Seventeen percent said they were not satisfied, and 28 percent reported satisfaction.

General Comments

Most of the open-ended comments came from teachers who were employed in schools in which a whole language program has recently been initiated or "will begin next year." Their concerns revolved around their lack of familiarity and knowledge with whole language, the amount of work to be done to ensure a successful program, and the excitement of the teachers who will be involved. From Hawaii one teacher stated, "We are still exploring, experimenting, and enjoying whole language in the classroom. More inservice and literature will be most welcome." A year-long staff development program involving observation and demonstrations will be provided in Ohio by a whole language specialist. One school in Pennsylvania reported that whole language has been introduced into first grade classes and will continue through the elementary grades as students are promoted.

Some teachers, who do not understand the concept of whole language, believe that they will be whole language teachers if they adopt a basal series that is publicized as a "whole language approach." Other teachers have unwillingly been involved in whole language and are reluctant to change their methods of teaching. Some of the respondents voiced their own opinions which frequently disagreed with school policies. In schools in which teachers have assumed more authority, teachers have initiated changes from the traditional curriculum to one based on whole language.

Many classroom teachers were aware of the term *whole language* but did not fully understand the concept. Some teachers prevented the success of whole language programs because they were reluctant to change. Others expressed a desire to learn more about it. One teacher in Missouri expressed what many teachers are thinking: "We're hungry for new information and ideas." A teacher in Virginia said, "We are just beginning! Whole language makes more sense than anything we have ever tried. We are still learning and still training."

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Although much research about whole language has been conducted during the past decade, this national survey focused on elementary teachers in an effort to determine if and how whole language is being implemented in schools, to investigate teachers' knowledge about whole language, and to obtain their reactions to whole language. This study surveyed inexperienced and experienced male and female teachers in urban, suburban, and rural schools of varying sizes. After completing the survey, teachers were given an opportunity to expand on their own perceptions of whole language and what was occurring in their schools. Since responses were received from teachers in each of the fifty states, results may reflect current national trends and practices.

Three major conclusions pertain to schools or school systems that have instituted whole language programs. First, an increase in whole language

instruction appears to have been the trend for the past eight years. Within the past four years, four-fifths of the schools have implemented whole language. A sharp increase has occurred during the past two years, indicating greater awareness of the potential of whole language instruction.

Second, the majority of teachers in schools or systems that have implemented whole language recognize the need for additional changes in their current programs. This suggests that teachers are beginning to understand the concept of whole language and are learning the best ways to implement it.

Finally, although different types of inservice programs were reported, the programs predominantly dealt with strategies, activities, and management. Only one-fourth of the inservices were theory based indicating a possible overemphasis of pedagogical sessions. Subcomponents, which tended to be mechanistic (i.e., handwriting, grammar, and spelling), received less attention in inservice programs.

Only one conclusion pertains to schools that have not instituted whole language programs. The survey results revealed that in approximately half of these schools, pilot programs had been initiated or are in the planning stages.

Overall, we learned that the majority of teachers are required to follow a conventional curriculum guide that governs their reading and language arts instruction, thereby limiting attempts to develop whole language curricula. In fact, only one-fourth of the teachers expressed satisfaction with their language arts programs. The majority indicated that they were only somewhat pleased, once again reflecting the teachers' beliefs that changes are currently needed in their programs.

Teachers tended to view reading as a separate subject, still taught primarily through the use of basal readers. Literature-based and language experience approaches, which are associated with a whole language orientation, were employed the least in reading instruction.

Writing was the only language arts component reported to be consistently interrelated with the other language arts and across the curriculum. Spelling, grammar, and handwriting, taught through the use of textbooks or workbooks, were reported by some to be related to the other language arts. However, they tended not to be integrated across the content areas in which application would be most meaningful. Listening and oral communication received little or no instructional emphasis. However, most teachers reported that both were stressed when related to the other language arts or content areas.

Whole language instruction is a relatively new educational innovation that is receiving much support from teachers even though their comments indicated some confusion. Overall, teachers express enthusiasm concerning whole language and are willing to meet the challenges that accompany any educational change.

REFERENCES

Clark, M. A. (1987). Don't blame the system: Constraints on whole language reform. *Language Arts, 64,* 384–96.

DeStefano, J .S. (1981). Demonstrations, engagements, and sensitivity: A revised approach to language learning. *Language Arts, 58,* 103–112.

Goodman, K. S. (1986). *What's whole in whole language?* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Salinger, T. (1988). *Language arts and literacy for young children.* Columbus, OH: Merrill Publishing Company.

Stahl, S. A., & Miller, P. D. (1989). Whole language and language experience approaches for beginning reading: A quantitative research synthesis. *Review of Educational Research, 59,* 87–116.

Stoodt, B. D. (1988). *Teaching language arts.* New York: Harper & Row.

Theoretical Orientation of British Infant School Teachers

JANET A. MILLER
Northern Kentucky University

During the last several decades, advocates of whole language approaches to reading in the United States have frequently looked to schools in England as models of language- and literature-based instruction. Although support for whole language instruction has been provided in the United States by research, theory, and practice (e.g., Goodman, 1986; Newman, 1985; Harste, Woodward, & Burke, 1984), educators in the United States have also read about or observed English teachers who have, for a number of years, used trade books and engaged pupils in a variety of oral and written language-related activities as a means to promote literacy. They found inspiration as well as theoretical support from British publications such as *Read with Me* by Liz Waterland (1985), *Learning to Read* by Margaret Meek (1982), and *The Meaning Makers* by Gordon Wells (1986).

During the 1980s, I visited a number of schools in England, particularly in the London area, where teachers used trade books as basic materials for teaching reading. In addition, they encouraged shared reading and engaged children in a wide variety of language-related activities such as writing, book discussions, choral reading, and drama. Teachers in these schools, especially those in the infant schools and departments, appeared to be strongly committed to whole language practices in literacy learning and to have found successful ways to integrate written and oral language instruction in a "topics approach" to language and literacy learning.

Support for a language-based approach to beginning reading has been provided for a number of years in England by reports of the Department of

Education and Science and Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools. *A Language for Life* (1975), known as the Bullock Report affirms the importance of language and the "organic relationship between the various aspects of English" (p. xxxv). It stresses the importance of natural development of language-related abilities and appropriate intervention in promoting literacy. Reports on surveys of the schools, such as *Education 5 to 9: An Illustrative Survey of 80 First Schools in England* (Department of Education and Science [DES], 1982) and *The Teaching and Learning of Language and Literacy* (DES, 1990) note the importance of reading in the curriculum and encourage practices that utilize a variety of materials, including fiction and nonfiction books. *The Curriculum From 5 to 16* (DES, 1989) recommends that pupils' command of language in listening, speaking, reading, and writing will be enhanced by the use of language for a variety of purposes in home and school as well as through specific study of both language and literature.

As a result of this strong endorsement of language and literature as the heart of literacy programs and my personal observations in the schools, I came to believe that English teachers might hold a set of underlying beliefs about reading and reading instruction that readily enables them to embrace many whole language practices. Schools across England reflect a wide variety of practices in reading instruction, but infant school and infant department teachers, in particular, seem to base their reading instruction on a theoretical orientation that is currently characterized as whole language, or "top-down." They emphasize quality literature and utilize student writing and shared reading experiences. To test the hypothesis, I examined the theoretical orientation of infant school and infant department teachers in England.

PROCEDURES

I used the Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile (TORP, DeFord, 1985), an instrument designed to determine a teacher's orientation to reading instruction. Theoretical orientation is defined as a network of assumptions through which experiences are organized and acted upon. According to DeFord, there are three major orientations operating in reading instruction. The first, labeled a *phonics orientation*, emphasizes "smaller than word level language units, with gradual movement toward word units and attention to comprehension" (DeFord, 1985, p. 353). The second, called a *skills orientation*, emphasizes building an "adequate sight word vocabulary for the children to use in reading." These sight words are usually "introduced in context, with multiple opportunities provided for practice." Word attack skills are usually introduced in a "hierarchically arranged sequence," and text is generated for further practice of the sight vocabulary (DeFord, 1985, p. 353). A third orientation, categorized as *whole language*, stresses meaning, provides readers with "quality literature from the outset of instruction" and emphasizes the "developing sense of story/text as a framework for dealing

with smaller units of language." Activities focusing on words or letters are "integrated into the reading experience" (DeFord, 1985, p. 354).

The TORP uses a Likert scale response system to a series of statements about how reading should be taught. Teachers with a phonics orientation generally agree with statements in the instrument that emphasize verbalization of the rules of phonics, exactness in word identification, and moderate attention to sight words. Teachers with a skills orientation to reading instruction tend to agree with statements expressing concern about the introduction of words before instruction and the importance of helping children learn multiple strategies or skills for identifying words. Skills-oriented teachers are less concerned with phonic analysis as the most important word identification strategy. Teachers with a whole language orientation also exhibit less concern with phonic analysis, but they tend to agree with statements that do not support isolated skills instruction and agree with statements in the instrument that emphasize the importance of meaning and natural language with less stress on exactness in reading.

Using the TORP, I surveyed infant school and infant department teachers and head teachers from 63 schools. The schools were randomly selected from among 236 supported or assisted schools in two counties in northeastern England. After personally contacting the head teachers of each school or department to explain the project and establish the number of infant school–level teachers at each school, I mailed explanatory letters and the survey instrument, along with a stamped, return envelope, to each school. Three hundred forty-eight copies of the survey were mailed to the selected schools. In addition to the TORP, I asked the teachers and head teachers to identify their assigned teaching levels and respond to several additional questions about their teaching practices and preferences.

RESULTS

One hundred forty-six teachers and head teachers from more than 40 different schools responded to the survey, resulting in a return rate of 42 percent. The majority of the respondents failed to identify their level of teaching within the infant schools and departments. However, among those who identified their current level or assignment, 26 worked at the reception level (ages four and five), 22 at middle infant level (ages five and six), and 18 at top infant level (ages six and seven). Three indicated they were head teachers. Infant schools and departments ranged in size from 2 to 11 teachers.

Total scores on the TORP ranged from 59 to 132. A score within the low range (from 0 to 65) indicates a phonics orientation, a middle range score (from 65 to 110) indicates a skills orientation, and a score within the high range (110 to 140) indicates a whole language orientation. Of the teachers and heads responding, three (2 percent) scored within the lower range of the scale, which indicates a phonics orientation. One hundred nineteen (82 percent) scored within the middle range of the scale, which indicates a skills

orientation. Twenty-four (16 percent) of the teachers and heads responding scored within the high range of the scale, which indicates a more whole language orientation.

Teachers also responded to five additional questions about their own teaching practices and preferences. Forty-nine percent indicated that they would rather not use reading schemes (basal readers) than real books. Seventy-seven percent indicated that they preferred to let children use invented spellings rather than insist on correct spelling during writing activities. Eighty-one percent said they would rather have children guess at unrecognized words than have them ask for help. Seventy-eight percent claimed they set aside time during the day for children to do uninterrupted silent reading. And 97 percent indicated that they supported the use of Big Books with infant school children.

CONCLUSION

Although England is recognized as one of the countries in which many teachers utilize approaches generally associated with whole language, the randomly selected infant school and department teachers who participated in this study did not overwhelmingly indicate a theoretical orientation reflecting whole language. Instead, the majority appear to hold a skills orientation to reading instruction. Nevertheless, many teachers indicated preferences for several of the practices associated with whole language. Their "middle-of-the-road" orientation, in addition to the traditional autonomy of individual schools and teachers in determining instructional methods and materials in England, apparently results in the use of a wide variety of approaches to beginning reading, including reading schemes, trade books, thematic units, and an integrated day that incorporates a number of language-related activities that support emergent literacy.

On the other hand, teachers with a skills orientation may experience some difficulty as they attempt to adjust to the new National Curriculum for England and Wales, which strongly reflects a whole language point of view. The English attainment targets of the National Curriculum mandate meaningful and natural development of all aspects of language development and use, and programs of study stress the goals of independent reading, the importance of meaning, the uses of literature, the role of the home in encouraging emergent literacy, and reading as transaction. Further, the National Curriculum English Working Group notes that "teachers should recognize that reading is a complex but unitary process and not a set of discrete skills which can be taught separately in turn and, ultimately, bolted together" (DES, 1989, 16.9). Teachers with a whole language theoretical orientation would tend to be in greater agreement with the attainment targets and programs of study set forth by the Working Group and the National Curriculum for English and should, more easily, be able to carry out effectively the mandates of the Education Reform Act of 1988.

REFERENCES

DeFord, D.S. (1985). Validating the construct of theoretical orientation in reading instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly, 20,* 351–367.

Department of Education and Science. (1990). *The teaching and learning of language and literacy.* London: H.M.S.O.

Department of Education and Science. (1989). *The curriculum from 5 to 16.* London: H.M.S.O.

Department of Education and Science. (1982). *Education 5 to 9: An illustrative survey of 80 first schools in England.* London: H.M.S.O.

Goodman, K.S. (1986). *What's whole in whole language.* Ontario, Canada: Scholastic-Tab.

Harste, J., Woodward, V., & Burke, C. (1984). *Language stories and literacy lessons.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

A language for life. (1975). Report of the committee of inquiry appointed by the Secretary of State for Education and Science under the Chairmanship of Sir Alan Bullock, FBA. London: H.M.S.O.

Meek, M. (1982). *Learning to read.* London: The Bodley Head.

Newman, J.M. (Ed.). (1985). *Whole language theory in use.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Waterland, L. (1985). *Read with me: An apprenticeship approach to reading.* Gloucester: Thimble Press.

Wells, G. (1986). *The meaning makers.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

KNOWING ABOUT TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE CONTENT AREAS

A Model for Teaching Content Area Reading Strategies to Preservice Teachers

VICTORIA G. RIDGEWAY
DAVID REINKING
The University of Georgia
DONNA MEALEY
Louisiana State University

This paper addresses what we believe to be a neglected concern in the teaching of content area reading courses to preservice teachers. In these courses, we perceive a lack of systematic concern for helping students (1) to select appropriate strategies from those presented and (2) to adapt strategies to various teaching situations. Typically, strategy instruction is focused on procedural knowledge, that is, how the strategy is implemented in the classroom. Conditional knowledge, which includes information relative to the conditions under which each strategy is most effective, appears to be neglected. Two questions summarize our concerns: How do we help students in content area reading courses select appropriate strategies from among the many strategies we have taught them? How do we help them adapt these strategies to the diverse contingencies of real teaching situations? Failure to address these concerns may lead students to view strategies as recipes instead of game plans that need continual fine tuning and adjustment.

When preservice teachers are introduced to a new strategy for teaching content area lessons, we believe instructors should have three goals: (1) provide students with the rationale for the strategy and the procedures for implementing it, (2) acquaint students with the conditions under which the strategy is used appropriately, and (3) demonstrate how they can extend, adapt, and integrate the strategy based on a consideration of relevant instructional factors. We believe many content area reading courses and textbooks focus disproportionately on the first of these three goals. To address this shortcoming, we propose an instructional model for introducing teachers to

a new teaching strategy. The model groups activities into four successive stages: inform, model, practice with feedback, and evaluate. A graphic representation of the model is shown in Figure 1. In the discussion that follows, we describe each stage of the model, and then we provide an example of implementation using a vocabulary strategy.

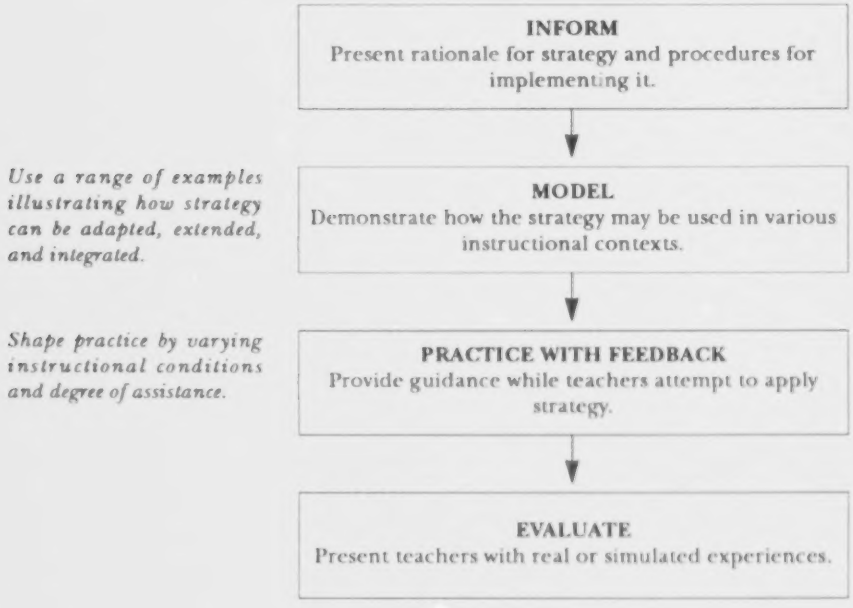

INFORM
Present rationale for strategy and procedures for implementing it.
Use a range of examples illustrating how strategy can be adapted, extended, and integrated.
MODEL
Demonstrate how the strategy may be used in various instructional contexts.
Shape practice by varying instructional conditions and degree of assistance.
PRACTICE WITH FEEDBACK
Provide guidance while teachers attempt to apply strategy.
EVALUATE
Present teachers with real or simulated experiences.

Figure 1. A model for introducing teachers to a new strategy for teaching content area lessons

FOUR STAGES

In the first stage the instructor informs students about the strategy. Both the rationale for its use and the procedures for implementing it are presented. Informing students about strategies is a common goal in content area reading courses and therefore requires little elaboration here.

In the second stage the instructor models several examples of the strategy. A range of examples should be offered to demonstrate how the strategy may be modified, adapted, and extended to accommodate a variety of instructional contexts. At this stage we recommend that students be asked to

consider the factors that would affect a decision to use the strategy and, if used, how it might be implemented. Table 1 is an attempt to provide a comprehensive listing of factors that might be considered in making such decisions. We believe it is crucial to demonstrate a variety of examples and to explain why each example might be selected relative to these factors. Additionally, an instructor should demonstrate how the various examples might be adapted, extended, and integrated with other strategies.

TABLE 1
Factors to Consider when Extending and Integrating Activities into Content Area Lessons

Instructional Purposes/Goals
Reinforcement
Evaluation/Assessment goals
Introduce concepts
Review
Elaborate concepts
Increase interest
Enhance independent learning
Develop reference skills
Student Characteristics
Background knowledge
Academic ability
Reading ability
Ability to learn/work independently
Motivation
Metacognitive ability
Characteristics of Text
Organizational structure
Purpose/genre
Difficulty relative to student's ability/background knowledge
Difficulty relative to subject area
Strong versus weak contextual information
Considerateness
Density of new concepts/terms
Characteristics of Target Words and Concepts
Degree of relatedness
Label versus concept familiarity
Concrete versus abstract
Connotative versus denotative significance
Teaching Environment
Time available for preparation and instruction
Small versus large group work

In the third stage, students practice developing lessons using the strategy and receive feedback for their efforts. Practice should be shaped, if possible, by presenting students with a variety of relevant circumstances and by gradually reducing the level of assistance provided by the instructor. Finally, at stage four, students' ability to adapt, integrate, and extend the strategy should be evaluated through real or simulated teaching experiences.

As suggested in Table 1, introducing students to strategies should involve acquainting them not only with the rationale and procedures for implementing a strategy but also with relevant considerations such as the characteristics of students, text, concepts being taught, and other factors in the teaching environment. A consideration of these factors is important in order for students to select appropriate strategies. One way to accomplish this would be to have students complete a strategy analysis sheet. Table 2 is an example of a completed strategy analysis for a structured overview. Students might complete such an analysis in small groups.

TEACHING ABOUT STRUCTURED OVERVIEWS

In providing examples of structured overviews, an instructor might demonstrate how the strategy could be used to introduce a topic prior to reading, as a review technique, or as a way to evaluate student learning. The structured overview shown in Figure 2 is an example of one that could be used to introduce a reading selection about atomic structure in a science class. This example would allow the instructor to highlight the fact that the hierarchical nature of the concepts involved make a structured overview an appropriate strategy choice. The instructor could also show an example of a partially competed overview and suggest that it might be used as a guide during reading with students completing the overview as they read. Student ability and background knowledge would determine whether reading was accomplished for homework or in small collaborative groups during class.

Thus, in presenting the structured overview strategy, an instructor should point out factors involving instructional purpose (are you introducing terms or providing guidance for reading?), concept characteristics (structured overviews are well suited to hierarchical concepts but less well suited to sequential concepts), student characteristics (less able students would profit from collaborative reading of text while completing the structured overview), and teaching environment (structured overviews require more teacher preparation time than other strategies such as mapping).

The possibilities for developing a categorization activity based on a structured overview would illustrate to students how strategies can be integrated and extended. The categorization activity illustrated in Table 3 is an extension of the structured overview. With reinforcement exercises such as categorization, preservice teachers should be alerted to the likelihood that their students will derive multiple solutions to the task, thus highlighting the fact that the results of a strategy used in the classroom may not look like a text-

TABLE 2
Strategy Analysis for the Structured Overview

Strategy Analysis
Strategy: Structured Overview
Key features that may affect a decision to select strategy

Instructional Purposes

Well suited for introduction of new terms, shown in relation to terms already known. Can evolve into a guided reading activity and may be used to evaluate student knowledge.

Student Characteristics

A completed structured overview might be used with less able students or those with little background knowledge. More able students or those with much background knowledge might be provided with partially blank overviews to be completed.

Characteristics of Text

Works with informational text, particularly text with a high density of unfamiliar terms. Is not particularly suited to fiction.

Characteristics of Target Words and Concepts

Works best with hierarchical concepts.

Teaching Environment

Teacher preparation required. Overviews may be with transparencies, drawn on chalkboards, or on handouts for students. A novel use might be for a bulletin board.

Adapting, extending, and integrating strategy

1. Terms in structured overview serve as basis for categorization exercise.
2. Partially completed overviews may be used to guide student reading, done individually (as homework) or in groups during class.
3. Students might be required to annotate structured overviews as they read and/or discuss the text.
4. Blank structured overviews, with only one or two slots filled in, may be used to evaluate student learning.
5. Structured overviews might become "maps" for writing about the concept on which the overview is built.

book example. Preservice teachers need to be aware that a significant feature of exercises such as these is that students' lines of reasoning in arriving at solutions are at least as important as the product.

Students should practice strategy implementation in a variety of situations, varying the purpose for use, student characteristics, text, and teaching environment. In situations in which practice teaching with real students is not possible, preservice teachers might be divided into teams of three or four, each provided with a different scenario in which to apply the same

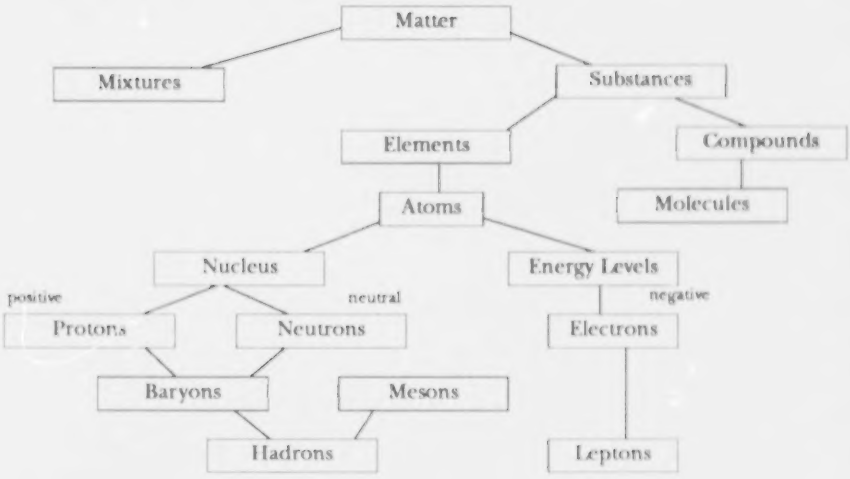


Figure 2. A structured overview developed for the concept of atomic structure

strategy. Peer evaluation of each team's adaptation would provide appropriate closure for the activity.

In conclusion, we believe the use of an instructional model that goes beyond procedural knowledge, that provides for practice under a variety of instructional conditions, and that provides for instructor and peer feedback will enable preservice teachers to select strategies rationally. In addition, novice teachers will have had practice in acquiring the flexibility necessary to adapt and extend the strategies to meet the complexities of diverse teaching situations.

TABLE 3
Categorization Exercise Derived from a Structured Overview

I. In the following groups of related terms, one term does not belong. Circle the term that is unrelated, and give a title to the remaining terms. Be prepared to give your line of reasoning.

1. _____	2. _____	3. _____
atoms	proton	atom
elements	neutron	neutral
compounds	electron	lepton
molecules	baryons	hadron

II. A title has been given to the following groups of related terms. Circle the unrelated term. Be prepared to give the reason for your choice.

1. elements	2. molecule	3. nucleus
atoms	atom	baryon
molecules	element	proton
compounds	compound	electron
substance	mixture	neutron

Attitudes Toward Teaching Reading in the Content Areas: A Correlational Study

CINDY GILLESPIE
NANCY CLEMENTS
Ball State University

When thinking about content area reading, one might consider the words to a current popular song: "We didn't start the fire, but it keeps on burning." The "fire" concerning the teaching of reading in the content areas was sparked by William S. Gray (1937), who stated that every teacher should be a teacher of reading. The flame is still burning as evidenced by the increasing number of articles on teaching reading in the content areas that appear in various reading journals each year.

Since the early 1960s, researchers have been investigating content area teachers' attitudes toward the teaching of reading in their content areas. Most of the reported investigations have been of the survey type that focus on teacher self-reports of attitudes and practices toward teaching reading in the content areas. Gillespie and Rasinski (1989) reported that these investigations could be classified into three major categories: studies that attempted to measure only attitudes, studies that examined attitudes and practices, and studies that measured teacher attitudes before and after taking a content area reading course.

It is evident from an analysis of these investigations that most of the reported results came about as a result of administering a researcher-developed questionnaire. Braam and Walker (1973), Christiansen (1986), Dupuis, Askov and Lee (1979), Flanagan (1975), Jackson (1979), Lipton and Liss (1978), Olson (1969), Otto and Smith (1969), Stieglitz (1983), and Usova (1979) all reported results of content area teachers' attitudes toward

reading based on instruments that each had developed. Other investigators (Lloyd, 1985; Orlando, 1984; O'Rourke, 1980; Singer, 1979; Welle, 1981) adapted questionnaires developed by some of the aforementioned researchers.

However, a study by Edwards (1979) raised an important question about the use of attitudinal surveys. She maintained that attitudinal surveys on reading in the content areas may unfairly portray the beliefs that secondary teachers hold about teaching reading in the content areas. Edwards investigated the relevance, accuracy, and relationship of various survey instruments in measuring teachers' attitudes toward content area reading using the Otto and Smith (1969), Flanagan (1975), and Vaughan (1977) attitudinal instruments.

Edwards believed she would find a high correlation between the scales since each was believed to measure secondary teachers' attitudes toward teaching reading in the content areas. The findings, however, were contrary to her expectations. Correlations found between the instruments were Otto-Smith and Flanagan, –0.22; Flanagan and Vaughan, –0.40; and Otto-Smith and Vaughan, 0.12. After the surveys were administered, Edwards interviewed the 25 teachers in an effort to find some reasons for the lack of correlation. Responses from the teachers indicated that wording problems confounded the issues and that the instruments did not accurately reflect what was being done in the classroom.

However, suspicion can be cast on Edwards' findings as a result of methodological problems. First, the number of subjects in the Edwards study was limited. Second, the instruments employed are qualitatively different. The Flanagan instrument is a measure of teachers' definitions and beliefs about the teaching of reading; the Vaughan and Otto-Smith instruments tend to be measures of teachers' attitudes toward reading instruction in the content areas. Both of these problems may help explain the low and negative correlations reported by Edwards.

Edwards' study points to the need to delineate between instruments that measure attitudes, behaviors, qualifications, and other factors that influence teachers' orientations to reading instruction in the content areas. Edwards' work also points to the need for researchers to test the reliability and validity of their instruments. Finally, with so many existing attitudinal instruments, it is important to know how these instruments relate to one another.

METHOD

The purpose of this investigation was to determine the consistency among content area teachers' attitude scales that were believed to be measures of the same construct: secondary teachers' attitudes toward the teaching of reading in the content areas. The attitudinal instruments used in this investigation were Otto and Smith (1969), Vaughan (1977), Singer-Otto-Smith (Singer, 1979), and Usova (1979). Each employs a Likert-type scale. These

instruments are believed to be measures of teachers' attitudes toward teaching reading in the content areas. The Singer-Otto-Smith (Singer, 1979) instrument is an adaptation of Otto and Smith (1969). In each instance where Otto and Smith referred to the "teaching of reading," Singer replaced it with "teaching students to learn from text."

The four instruments were combined to form one composite 63-item attitudinal instrument. Beginning with item 1, every fourth item on the combined survey was from the Otto and Smith (1969) instrument. The second item and every fourth item thereafter was taken from Vaughan's (1977) attitudinal scale. The third item and every fourth item thereafter came from Singer's (1979) adaptation of the Otto and Smith scale. The fourth item, and every other fourth item thereafter came from the Usova (1979) instrument. This procedure was continued until all items were used. The purpose for combining the scales was to establish a way to maintain consistency between and among attitude instruments.

Once the combined attitudinal survey was developed, investigators administered it to 52 preservice teachers who represented the areas of math, science, social studies, English, vocational arts, music, foreign language, and physical education. All students were junior-level education majors enrolled in a content area reading course. The attitudinal instrument was administered prior to the initiation of instruction in the course.

After students completed the combined survey, the items were then recategorized back to the original scales for scoring. Scoring was then completed following the directions as provided in the literature.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated for all pair combinations (see Table 1). All correlations were significant at the $p<0.001$ level.

When scoring the individual attitudinal instruments, several items seem to separate themselves from the rest of the items on the content area surveys. The "problem" items and the attitudinal scales to which they belong include

1. At the secondary school level, students want to learn content, not how to learn from texts (Singer, 1979).
2. The primary responsibility of a content teacher should be to impart subject matter knowledge (Vaughan, 1977).
3. Few students can learn all they need to know about how to read in six years of schooling (Vaughan, 1977).
4. In secondary school, teaching students to learn from text should be the responsibility of reading teachers (Otto & Smith, 1969).

For each of these items, approximately half of the students agreed or strongly agreed, while the other half were undecided, disagreed, or strongly disagreed. The response to items 1 and 2 above could be due, in part, to the preservice teachers' lack of knowledge about what content area reading

TABLE 1
Pearson Correlation Coefficients (SPSS-X) for the Singer-Otto-Smith, Vaughan, Usova, and Otto-Smith Content Area Reading Attitude Scales

	Vaughan	Usova	Otto-Smith
Singer-Otto-Smith	0.5366	0.4466	0.7747
Vaughan	—	0.8521	0.7504
Usova		—	0.6168
Otto-Smith			—

n=52
All correlations significant at $p<.001$

entails and how it affects them as prospective teachers. The responses to item 3 seem to indicate that, without instruction, preservice teachers seemed unsure as to what students are expected to learn about reading at the secondary level. For many secondary education majors, a basic understanding of the reading process and how reading is taught in the elementary schools would help them to understand why secondary students may have reading difficulties. Responses to item 4 may indicate that preservice teachers may lack sufficient knowledge about their roles and responsibilities (teaching content and reading) in the secondary schools as well as the roles and responsibilities of support personnel, such as a reading specialist.

The results of this investigation are tentative, yet they do tend to support the notion that each of these attitudinal instruments is a measure of the same construct: teacher attitudes toward teaching content area reading and/or learning from text, not extraneous factors such as practices or knowledge of techniques for teaching reading in the content areas. Contrary to Edwards' findings, the correlations in this study illustrate the strong similarity among content area attitude instruments. Even though the results of this investigation contrast with the results obtained by Edwards, the conclusions drawn are similar. Caution must be exhibited when interpreting the results of teachers' self-reports about their attitudes toward teaching reading in the content areas. Researchers must also attend to the content of the surveys when correlating different attitudinal instruments to be sure that the surveys are measures of similar constructs.

Additionally, although most of the preservice teachers appeared to have positive attitudes toward the teaching of reading in the content areas prior to instruction, the responses to the aforementioned "problem" items do provide some information about what issues may need to be addressed in content area reading courses. Preservice teachers appear to lack sufficient knowledge about what content area reading is and what it entails. Certainly, this issue should be addressed in any content area reading class. The responses to item 3 suggest that secondary content area reading courses

should include an overview of the reading process and how reading is taught in the elementary schools. This would increase secondary preservice teachers' knowledge about the different techniques used to teach reading and why a range of reading levels may exist in their classrooms. Responses to item 4 seem to point to the need for teaching secondary preservice teachers about their roles and responsibilities in teaching reading as well as the roles and responsibilities of support personnel.

In addition to addressing the aforementioned issues in a content area reading class, teacher educators should strive to teach secondary preservice teachers that they do not have to sacrifice content to teach reading in their content areas. The emphasis of any content area reading course should be on integrating content and reading. Heslep (1982) stated that reading is the vehicle by which teachers carry on their work and if students cannot read these languages, they must be taught by the teachers of the discipline. It may be time to change the old saying from "every teacher is a teacher of reading" to "every teacher should teach students how to learn from the assigned text."

REFERENCES

Braam, L., & Walker, J. (1973). Subject teachers' familiarity with reading skills. *Journal of Reading, 16*(8), 608–611.

Christiansen, M. (1986). How prospective secondary teachers feel about taking a required course in teaching reading: A survey report. *Journal of Reading, 29*(5), 428–429.

Dupuis, M., Askov, E., & Lee, J. (1979). Changing attitudes toward content area reading: The content area reading project. *Journal of Educational Research, 13*(2), 66–74.

Edwards, P. (1979). Have attitudinal surveys about reading been fair to the secondary teacher? *Journal of Reading, 23*, 21–24.

Flanagan, B. (1975). A competency-based assessment of secondary teachers' attitudes and perceptions of qualification in content area reading instruction (Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1974). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 36*, 6015A.

Gillespie, C., & Rasinski, T. (1989). Content area teachers' attitudes and practices toward reading in the content areas: A review. *Reading Research and Instruction, 28*(3), 45–63.

Gray, W. (1937). The nature and types of reading. In G. Whipple (Ed.), *The thirty-sixth yearbook of the national society for the study of education (p. 31)*. Bloomington, IL: Public School Publishing.

Heslep, R. (1982). Reading in the disciplines: Comprehending propositions. In G. McNinch (Ed.), *Reading in the disciplines: Second yearbook of the Ameri-*

can reading forum (pp. 120–122). Carrolton, GA: American Reading Forum.

Jackson, J. (1979). Reading in the secondary school: Survey of teachers. *Journal of Reading, 23*(3), 229–232.

Lipton, J., & Liss, J. (1978). Attitudes of content area teachers towards teaching reading. *Reading Improvement, 15*(4), 294–300.

Lloyd, B. (1985). *Secondary Reading: What High School Teachers Think.* (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 254 837).

Olson, A. (1969). Attitude of high school content area teachers toward the teaching of reading. In G. Schick & M. May (Eds.), *Multidisciplinary aspects of college-adult reading* (pp. 162–166). Milwaukee: National Reading Conference.

Orlando, V. (1984). Effects of a content reading class on attitudes and practices of secondary teachers. In G. McNinch (Ed.) *Reading teacher education* (pp. 32–34). Carrolton, GA: American Reading Forum.

O'Rourke, W. (1980). Research on the attitude of secondary teachers toward reading in content classrooms. *Journal of Reading, 23*(4), 337–339.

Otto, W., & Smith, R. (1969). Junior and senior high school teachers' attitudes toward teaching reading in the content areas. In G. Schick & M. May (Eds.), *The psychology of reading behavior* (pp. 49–54). Milwaukee: National Reading Conference.

Singer, H. (1979). Attitudes towards reading and learning from text. In M. Kamil and A. Moe (Eds.) *Reading research: Studies and applications* (pp. 254–260). Milwaukee: National Reading Conference.

Stieglitz, E. (1983). Effects of a content area reading course on teacher attitudes and practices: A four-year study. *Journal of Reading, 26*(8), 690–696.

Usova, G. (1979). Comparing attitudes toward reading instruction among secondary principals, reading specialists, and content-area teachers. *Reading Improvement, 16*(2), 169–174.

Vaughan, J. (1977). A scale to measure attitudes toward teaching reading in content classrooms. *Journal of Reading, 20*(7), 605–609.

Welle, D. (1981). Effects of a required reading methods course on attitudes of secondary education majors: A three-year study. *Journal of Reading, 25*(2), 134–136.

Exchanging Places: College to High School Classroom

JUDY S. RICHARDSON
Virginia Commonwealth University

During the fall of 1989 I swapped places with a teacher at a local high school. She taught my college classes and supervised student teachers; I taught her students. We agreed, with the concurrence of our administrators, to an 18-week exchange so that the college students could experience their complete course with one instructor and the high schoolers could receive contiguous instruction and a complete semester grade from one teacher.

I sought a situation in which I would be perceived as the "real" teacher, not a visitor. I desired the continuity of teaching lessons that led to units and units that led to some culmination I could observe. I wanted the "daily grind" of a teacher's regular load. I got it: seven periods a day, including one planning period, the ubiquitous study hall, two sections of 10th grade "average ability" students, and one class of 10th grade "basic" students. My goals were the following:

To reacquaint myself with secondary students;

To try out innovative instructional strategies

To understand better the working lives of those teachers I teach at the university level

Although I teach reading courses at the college level, my undergraduate training and teaching experience were primarily in English. I believe heartily in a reading-to-learn approach and wanted to teach reading within the content of English rather than in a remedial reading setting. This meant

This study was supported, in part, by the Grants-in-Aid Program for the faculty of Virginia Commonwealth University.

that my exchange teacher had to be an English teacher, but with a master's degree in reading in order to qualify to teach my courses. The steps involved in working out the details of our exchange are described in the last section of this paper.

TEACHER AS RESEARCHER

Although I have taught at the college level for many years, I have always wanted to return to the secondary classroom. I missed the unique experience of working with high school students; so for me, this was to be a dream (sometimes a nightmare!) come true. However, I was seeking more than a reunion; I wanted to conduct classroom research as well. Traditional research models, which make use of experimental, hypothesis-testing designs, sometimes do not match classroom realities (Christenbury, 1990). Teachers are usually in the best position to ask pertinent questions and seek answers because they are immersed in the regular classroom routine. Such research moves from "intensely personal accounts embedded in daily practice to theoretical arguments to logical applications" (Pinnell & Matlin, 1990, p. xi) rather than from theory to experiment to sometimes illogical applications.

Some teachers resist and distrust college professors who offer theory and conduct research from "the ivory tower" perspective (e.g., Jost, 1990). Nevertheless, the education professor is often better equipped to conduct research, because he or she has studied research methodology and also knows the professional literature well.

I believed that my knowledge of "best practice" methodology was up to date but that the research I conducted by classroom intervention (that is, visiting a classroom that is "prepared" for my arrival) might not tap the natural environment. Teachers also are skeptical of such research results: "...an air of tension and hostility developed between the 'expert' and the faculty" (Welsh, 1990, p. 62). This perception was validated on the afternoon of a mandatory inservice during my high school exchange. We English teachers listened to a lecture by a professor who commented that his sophomore college students were a lot like our remedial ninth graders. He lost his audience. A teacher whispered to me that this man obviously needed to teach some "nontheoretical" students before talking to teachers again!

I wanted to answer some questions about reading-to-learn strategies. I wanted to find answers in a teacher's environment. And I wanted teachers to believe in what I could recommend as a result of that classroom research. The teacher-as-researcher model seemed to me the best solution. Therefore, I immersed myself in the high school classroom for a period of time far surpassing "intervention."

I decided to employ a field study perspective. I collected notes, letters, and other forms of communication. I kept a journal, making at least one entry weekly, so that I could later study entries for patterns of behavior, reactions, and changes in beliefs and attitudes.

A major goal of my exchange was to introduce to my students innovative instructional strategies to determine if these would influence their levels of responsibility, comprehension, and study skills. I tried always to devise measures of success for activities: grades, student reactions in their writing, test responses, follow-up questionnaires, and descriptions of instructional conditions. My students wrote in learning logs that I read regularly. I especially noted responses to instructional methods I had introduced. I kept thorough records so that I could reconstruct and study results.

For instance, I monitored the success of student responsibility through a series of activities: a class notebook used consistently over the 18 weeks, in which each member of the class took the notes (Walpole, 1987); a "virtues" chart wherein students followed Benjamin Franklin's method of charting a virtue (in our case, one related to study habits); and a time management unit. Success was gauged by student comments, grades, responses, and evaluations, as well as by changes in behavior. In my journal I described the conditions that interfered, such as the numerous snow days and administrative schedule changes.

THE STORIES I CAN TELL NOW

I packed many experiences into a short time. I worked every hour I wasn't asleep, either preparing lessons or grading papers. While I was absolutely exhausted by the end of January 1990, I was also very glad I had done this. I had taken a journey I simply could not have embarked upon without being there all day, every day for 18 weeks. I can tell stories now that are fresh and recent, that establish a credibility I did not have before. The following are a few excerpts from my journal:

My Nervous Beginning, 8/27/90

I am nervous. Can I do this well? Teachers expect that I can, but I bet they'll not be surprised if I don't! Then they could smugly say that they knew all along a college professor was out of touch with reality! How will I get along with 10th and 11th graders on a daily basis after all these years away? Can I coordinate my ideas, my lesson plans, my SOL objectives, and still take roll efficiently?

The Inception of an Action Research Project, 9/27/90

The 11 High Ability tests. Results. The dreaded, expected results. Grades not too great. Last Friday, when I gave the multiple choice and jot chart portions, I saw that they finished early and just knew that my test was too easy. Ha! One person — whom I've moved out to Advanced English — got a perfect score. They are not used to thinking and taking their time. They rush and expect the test to be literal information only, although I modeled otherwise. Also, Hurricane Hugo was expected to rage through that day, and I think that they had electrical storms in their bloodstreams. I was disappointed.

Then I gave them my "Test Self-Report" questionnaire to help them become responsible and own up to their study time. Very revealing. The ones who made good grades did study and write that they did know what to expect on the test from my teaching and review. Actually only three of 42 accepted no responsibility and

said I was too hard on them. I think I should correlate their comments to the test grades and follow this same procedure for several tests, to see if a change in responsibility for study occurs.

On Using Learning Logs, 1/5/90

I was very glad I had a structure even for my last day. The tenth graders especially needed it. I had them write: two things I learned, two things I liked, and two pieces of advice for me. I explained that this was a way they could evaluate me....I cherish these learning log entries. One wrote how much he liked me but that he "had an image to keep up, nothing personal." I will use these entries to document activity success, to evaluate myself, for all kinds of enlightenment.

WHAT I LEARNED

By reviewing each of my goals for this exchange experience, I can convey some of what I learned. My first goal was to reacquaint myself with secondary students, having been away from teaching them full-time for 20 years. High schoolers still evoke in me the wonder and charm of developing maturity and budding critical thought, exploration, and the realization that learning can be its own reward. But the students I taught in 1989 were more rambunctious than those I had known before. This is probably attributable to their busy schedules — so many of them worked after school, sometimes very late into the evenings — and to limited parental support. I observed an overreliance on television and an underreliance on reading.

Experiencing these conditions firsthand allowed me to experiment with approaches to reading to learn. Reading and homework assignments were absolutely dependent on my careful preparation activities. Simply put, students would not find time to think, read, or write unless I could show them the "right connections" between my assignment and themselves. I provided lots of classroom assistance to make sure that our content was understood. Reflection afterwards became crucial. My students identified reflection activities such as our class notebook, test reviews, and vocabulary study as very important and useful aspects of my instruction. By becoming reacquainted with secondary students, I verified and can now demonstrate specifically why a reading framework with attention to before-during-after cycles is essential for today's students.

My second goal was to try out innovative instructional strategies. A major message in my college classes has always been that it is not the activities that are important but the way they are used to introduce strategic learning. Although a number of activities exist to encourage students to use a before-during-after reading cycle, it's the cycle that is important to convey. Yet I imagined that I, having so many activities in my repertoire, would try out numerous ones so I could share results later with teachers.

I quickly discovered that my message applied to me! Too many ways of studying content material confuse readers. I backtracked, and selected activities that fit the content and could be used consistently; then I stuck with them for 18 weeks. I saw changes in reading behavior as a result. My stu-

dents did designate their favorite activities, and I, mine. I do share these with teachers. But I have greater experiential wisdom to share: Changes in responsibility and reading behavior are very possible when an innovative, strategic approach to instruction is used.

My third goal was to understand better the working lives of those teachers I teach. I believe that there are different levels of "knowing." Although I knew before this exchange that effective teachers work hard and face many impediments, I knew it superficially. I now know it in my gut!

I found that many content teachers care deeply about good teaching and want to make positive instructional changes, but they often have had limited preservice preparation and can find little time to take university courses. Those who asked me to recommend courses usually had a horror story to recount about a "useless" education course in their pasts.

I understand now the reluctance of teachers to try something new. How can one get excited about a new instructional strategy when it is likely to be:

- Dismissed by an administrator: One commented to me that "English and social studies seemed to be getting mixed up" in the lesson.
- Ignored by an administrator: I submitted for review final exams that were carefully balanced and labeled across comprehension levels, were varied in format, and contained clear directions and point values. They were returned days later with no comment at all.
- Interrupted by shortened or deleted instructional time for extended homeroom to explain PTA fund-raising projects, pep rallies, club periods, class pictures, etc.

As one teacher wrote to me:

> I'm so glad that you observed school in action last year. I feel we need someone to fight our cause — expose the inside truth — (I feel like an announcer for a tabloid tv show!). Seriously, there is a problem in education today, and much of it stems from the fact that teachers are perceived as inefficient, can't do, not real bright people.

I understand how tired teachers can be by the opening of an evening college class. Facing students who ask, at the start of every period every day, "Are we going to do anything in here today?" can wear one out. Add in contrary Xerox machines, limited access to telephones, bathroom duty, and the unexpected but ever-present blowups that happen with the chemistry of high schoolers on the emotional edge of their lives, and the result can be an exhausted teacher.

I *really* know that I must provide real instructional opportunities for teachers, ones that make sense to them and for them in their daily teaching lives. I have to talk about those "nontheoretical" students. To do this, I have shifted to the spirit of inquiry, or reflection (Olson & Gillis, 1990) that the teacher-as-researcher model calls for. By demonstrating what I did, with all its raw edges of instructional interruptions, I am able to encourage teachers that they can do it too.

SOME BENEFICIAL AND NEGATIVE ASPECTS OF THE EXCHANGE

I have already described several benefits of the exchange. I am a better college instructor now. I have conducted action research and have data to keep me busy for years. My exchange teacher recharged her batteries while enjoying professional treatment. She was able to update her knowledge base; when she first entered my office, her comment was, "You've actually read all of these books?" The college students she taught received a practicing teacher's advice and counsel. I hope that my high school students received the benefit of a reading-to-learn approach to content that will aid their future learning. Overall, the relationship between the host school system and our School of Education has been enhanced.

Although I have few negative aspects to relate, there are some cautions others might consider. I assumed all responsibilities my exchange teacher would usually have, except for her role as cheerleading coach. I continued with some of my other commitments as well, such as presenting a paper at a national conference, finishing a textbook, and monitoring my state grant. My exchange teacher, on the other hand, assumed only my teaching obligations. She did not serve on committees, write, or attend conferences. I had more than enough to do and was really away from my college post too long.

My exchange teacher returned to 99 students she did not know in the middle of the year, while I faced a new group of students in new courses. I did not cover all of the content she had usually covered by January, and I had covered such skills as grammar in a very different way. I am sure she had a lot of catching up to do.

RECOMMENDATIONS

I recommend an exchange experience, although with adjustments. Those who want to pursue an exchange may find the following recommendations to be helpful.

1. Decide on goals for the exchange but be open to modifications. I had wanted to teach in a nearby school but ended up traveling 45 minutes each way because the system willing to take the "risk" was that far away. Also, describe the conditions for the exchange, such as my desire to teach English, not remedial reading.
2. Describe and communicate the qualifications of the exchange teacher. Should this person
   - have a master's or Ph.D. degree in reading?
   - possess specific types of training and qualifications?
   - be willing to serve on committees?
   - agree to write an article?
   - be energetic, enthusiastic, gregarious?
3. Start with plenty of lead time. Here is a rough chronology of my exchange:

April-November: Consideration by Department Chair and Dean of my written proposal
December: Letter drafted by me, approved and sent by my Dean to two school systems
January: First system responded
January-March: Interviews with Personnel Director, prospective exchange teacher, prospective principal and department chair within system
March: Interview by my faculty of prospective exchange teacher
April: Position accepted with first system. Second system, never having responded, notified that request is withdrawn
May-August: Preparation for instruction

4. Select a time frame for the exchange. We selected 18 weeks, but I would try another time frame in future exchanges because of the amount of work awaiting me after the exchange was completed. At the other extreme, one professor completed a one-week exchange (Carino, 1990), which would have been next to useless for me. Somewhere in between is probably best. I would recommend a six-to-eight-week exchange next time, to correspond with a complete grading period. The Appendix summarizes several possible time frames and some advantages and disadvantages of each.

CONCLUSION

On January 15, 1990, I wrote in my concluding journal entry:

> I am history!...I spent time being really blue to leave the kids. I do miss them. I am glad to have done this. But I love arising at 6:45 versus 6:00 again, and having time after my son leaves for school. I love having coffee again and a bathroom at hand, not to mention a phone. I love the peace and quiet and writing time. To have a whole weekend without lesson plans and grading and to know that it is no more — wonderful!

Would I do this again? You bet, but after a long rest!

REFERENCES

Carino, P. (1990). Down from the tower: A professor teaches high school. *The English Journal, 79,* 55–56.

Christenbury, L. (1990). The teacher-researcher: Opening the conversation. *Paradigm, 2,* 5.

Jost, K. (1990). Rebuttal (and several letters to the editor). *The English Journal, 79,* 25–29.

Olson, M., & Gillis, M. (1990). Preparing teacher/researchers. In N.D. Padak, T.V. Rasinski, & J. Logan (Eds.), *Challenges in reading* (pp. 17–24). Provo, UT: College Reading Association.

Pinnell, G., & Matlin, M. (Eds.). (1990). *Teachers and research.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Walpole, P. (1987). Yes, writing in math. In J. Self (Ed.), *Plain talk about reading and writing across the curriculum.* Richmond, VA: State Department of Education.

Welsh, V.L. (1990). A teacher's experience with change. In G. Pinnell, & M. Matlin (Eds.), *Teachers and research* (pp. 59-65). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

APPENDIX
Time Frames for Exchanges

Suggested Time Frame	Advantages	Disadvantages
one-year exchange	good for secondary students • provides continuity good for teacher • gives time away from classroom • gives time for professional enhancement • gives time to teach college courses twice good for college students • can confer with teacher all year okay for college prof • provides total immersion	too long for college prof to be away may be too long for teacher difficult administratively • would need contractual agreement
semester exchange	okay for secondary students • one complete semester grade good for teacher • gives time away from classroom • enough time for professional enhancement good for college students • have same instructor for total course good for college prof • provides enough immersion	a long time for college prof to be away
6- to 8- week exchange	okay for secondary students • one complete marking period good for teacher • gives some time away • gives some professional enhancement good for college prof • can teach complete unit • provides enough immersion	less satisfactory for college students • two different instructors in one course requires careful planning and team work by teacher and college prof
3-week exchange	okay for teacher • gives some time away • gives a little professional renewal time okay for college prof • gives a "unit's worth" of immersion	poor for secondary students • too little exposure to college prof • too little continuity • too disruptive not satisfactory for college students • two different instructors in a course, but too little exposure to the teacher borders on intervention

Making Links: Reading Across the Curriculum Workshops for Content Area Faculty

ANNE R. FRIEDMAN
Borough of Manhattan Community College
City University of New York

As the number of college students requiring developmental and remedial reading courses at the college level continues to increase (Hennessey, 1990), so does the need for assisting these students to transfer the skills they learn in their developmental classes to their content area subjects. Reading skills instructors recognize the importance of enlisting colleagues in other subject areas as allies who can help promote students' active, independent learning from texts. This article discusses the author's experience in conducting a series of ongoing faculty development seminars designed to encourage content area instructors to use reading strategies in their classes at an inner-city two-year college. A theoretical rationale for conducting such sessions is given, followed by a listing of major objectives for the workshops and suggestions for reading specialists to keep in mind when working with colleagues from other disciplines. Specific techniques and activities that can be included in Reading Across the Curriculum workshops are then described.

RATIONALE

The theoretical rationale for conducting Reading Across the Curriculum workshops for instructors who teach "traditional" college courses is that reading is a tool for learning in all disciplines and is not simply a skill to be mastered in developmental/remedial classes. Although the primary responsibility for remediating and developing students' reading and study skills

rests with trained reading professionals, content area faculty can encourage students to transfer and utilize these skills in their college courses. A basic assumption on which these sessions are predicated is that there are generic reading strategies that can be used as heuristics for learning and acquiring knowledge in all fields.

WORKSHOP OBJECTIVES

There are three major objectives in the Reading Across the Curriculum seminars. The first aim is to change content area instructors' attitudes toward reading in their classes. It is hoped that professors will begin to see that providing students with strategies that can facilitate comprehension of subject area texts will help students to become more active, independent, and successful learners. Workshops are also intended to provide content area instructors with several specific reading strategies that they can use with students in their courses. Teachers who participate in staff development workshops want to believe that their time is being well spent. "They prefer ideas, strategies, and materials that relate directly to their own classroom" (Vacca, 1983, p. 296). Finally, these workshops encourage instructors to experiment with and adopt some of the strategies that are suggested.

TIPS FOR READING SPECIALISTS

Reading specialists interested in conducting faculty development workshops are encouraged to keep four basic considerations in mind when working with their colleagues. First, content area instructors don't want to feel that their workload will be increased if they use these new strategies. Consequently, the seminar leader should suggest that, initially, instructors "start small" and perhaps try one strategy in a small unit of their courses, perhaps with just one or two classes. Second, reading specialists should not expect content area teachers to become reading teachers. This should be clearly stated. The purpose of using these strategies is to help students become better prepared in content area subjects. Additionally, skills specialists should not consider themselves to be experts in content area fields. It should be made explicit that reading specialists are not trained to teach colleagues' subjects. It is for the workshop participants to decide what they can practically utilize from these workshops in their areas of expertise. Finally, it is important to keep participants actively involved in the training sessions. They should be given time to practice the strategies and to talk about ways in which they might be incorporated into their own classes.

FIRST SESSION WORKSHOP ACTIVITIES

To set the tone for the workshops, it is helpful to get participants actively involved as early as possible in the session. Some possible "openers" or introductions might include asking for written or oral responses to such questions

as (1) What is one thing that you would expect or like to learn from today's workshop? (2) What are some problems that your students have had with reading assignments in your class? What have you done to address these problems? and (3) What do you see as the role of the textbook in your classroom?

An "absurd phrase" exercise can also be used at the beginning of the workshop. This involves reading quickly through 10 paragraphs, each of which contains an anomaly that the reader is asked to circle. Afterward, participants are asked to think about what they as readers needed to be able to do to complete the activity successfully. A discussion aimed at heightening participants' awareness of what is involved in the reading process can follow, and a list of what "good readers" do can be generated. The following factors can usually be elicited from the group, though perhaps not in the technical language familiar to reading specialists: (1) read for a purpose with an understanding of the criterion task; (2) make predictions and formulate hypotheses; (3) read actively to confirm, reject, or revise hypotheses; (4) read for meaning and expect the text to make sense; (5) think about the interrelationships among ideas; and (6) utilize background knowledge.

A discussion of the importance of activating and building background knowledge can serve as the segue to the next part of the workshop. This can be an introduction to prereading or "getting ready to read" strategies. The prereading stage, though just one part of the reading process, is a natural place to begin introducing some generic strategies that can be used easily in any discipline with minimal instructor preparation. In the initial session *brainstorming, structured overview, previewing a textbook chapter,* and *formulating prereading questions* activities can be explained, modeled, and practiced.

Brainstorming can be used as a group "warm-up" exercise to get students thinking about the topic of a textbook chapter they will be reading. The title of the chapter is written on the chalkboard in a large circle. Students then call out any ideas that come to mind related to the subject, and the instructor jots these down at the end of lines radiating from the circle. As ideas are being generated, the teacher can question students to get them to expand further on what they have said by asking such questions as "What made you think of that?" This enables the instructor to see what information as well as what misinformation students have about a particular subject. The teacher can also use the brainstorming activity as a means of channeling students' focus toward what he or she wishes students to concentrate on in their reading.

A *structured overview* is a hierarchical graphic representation of the major topics and subtopics presented in a textbook chapter or lecture. Initially, the instructor can prepare the overview for the students or provide a skeletal outline of the overview for students to complete. Students may then be guided to prepare their own overviews as part of a text previewing exercise.

Participants in the Reading Across the Curriculum workshops can be introduced to the concept of *previewing a textbook chapter* through a work-

sheet exercise that they can complete using a chapter from a college text. Instructors can be provided with blank copies of generic worksheets that they can duplicate for students to use when previewing chapters from books in any discipline. Workshop leaders can emphasize the importance of previewing as a way for students to begin to think about what they already know about a topic, to begin to build a knowledge base, and to start to predict some of the ideas that will be discussed in the chapter. The more prepared students are, the more they will get out of their reading.

The benefits of having students develop prereading questions can be introduced as a final prereading exercise. As students ask questions about what they will be reading, they also begin to predict what they will be learning in the chapter. They will be reading purposefully as they actively seek answers to their questions. Students can be guided to use the H5W technique as a strategy for asking questions about their reading. Titles, headings, and subheadings are turned into questions using one or more of the six questioning words: *how*, *who*, *where*, *when*, *what*, and *why*. Students are encouraged to read actively, responding to the questions they posed and to revise and create new questions as they read.

FOLLOW-UP WORKSHOP ACTIVITIES

After the initial session, content area instructors can be asked to use one or more of the strategies learned in one or more of their classes. In subsequent faculty development workshops, they can be asked to discuss their experiences with some of the reading strategies they have shared with students. Additionally, a wide range of during reading and after reading strategies can be included in future seminars. Writing specialists can be involved in workshops in which ideas about writing to learn and reading/writing strategies can also be introduced.

Some techniques that might be included in a second workshop session could be (1) annotating and taking marginal notes, (2) double-entry journals (Berthoff, 1981; Kirby, Nist, & Simpson, 1986; Nist & Simpson, 1987), (3) the Bleich response heuristic (Bleich, 1975), (4) "Listen-Read-Discuss" content heuristic (Manzo & Cassale, 1985), (5) semantic mapping (Peresich, Meadows, & Sinatra, 1990), (6) suggestions for content vocabulary development (Dupuis & Snyder, 1988), and (7) textbook activity guides (Davey, 1986).

SUMMARY

College reading instructors can provide a valuable service in sharing their expertise with content area teachers whose job it should be to help students transfer the strategies they have learned in developmental reading classes to all subject areas. Reading Across the Curriculum workshops offer the opportunity for stimulating and rewarding faculty development exchanges.

REFERENCES

Berthoff, A. E. (1981). *The making of meaning: Metaphors, models and maxims for writing teachers.* Montclair, NJ: Boynton/Cook.

Bleich, D. (1975). *Readings and feelings: An introduction to subjective criticism.* Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Davey, B. (1986). Using textbook activity guides to help students learn from textbooks. *Journal of Reading, 29,* 489–494.

Dupuis, M. M., & Snyder, S. L. (1988). Develop concepts through vocabulary: A strategy for reading specialists to use with content teachers. *Journal of Reading, 26,* 297–305.

Hennessey, J. (1990). At-risk community college students and a reading improvement course: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Reading, 34,* 114–120.

Kirby, K., Nist, S. L., & Simpson, M. L. (1986). The reading journal: A bridge between reading and writing. *Forum for Reading, 18,* 13–19.

Manzo, A. V., & Cassale, U. P. (1985). Listen-read-discuss: A content reading heuristic. *Journal of Reading, 28,* 732–734.

Nist, S. L., & Simpson, M. L. (1987). Facilitating transfer in college reading programs. *Journal of Reading, 30,* 620–625.

Peresich, M. L., Meadows, J. D., & Sinatra, R. (1990). Content area cognitive mapping for reading and writing proficiency. *Journal of Reading, 33,* 424–432.

Vacca, J. L. (1988). How to be an effective staff developer for content teachers. *Journal of Reading, 26,* 293–296.

Teaching Adult Beginning Readers: To Reach Them My Hand

Alan M. Frager, Editor
Published by *The College Reading Association*

Teaching Adult Beginning Readers: To Reach Them My Hand is a new monograph that shows how the most current knowledge and practices in reading instruction can be used to guide the instruction of adults at the first stages of literacy. Strategies for instruction and assessment as well as guidelines for curriculum and program evaluation are clearly presented in this handbook. It is intended for directors and teachers in adult literacy programs as well as interested professionals in all areas of reading instruction.

Teaching Adult Beginning Readers: To Reach Them My Hand was published in May, 1991. Cost is $7.00. Orders may be sent to Al Frager, Department of Teacher Education, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio 45056. Make checks payable to *College Reading Association.*